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LXXI. *History of Russia*, from the Foundation of the Monarchy by Rurik, to the Accession of Catharine the Second. By W TOOKE, F. R. S. Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, and of the Free Economical Society at St. Petersburg. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1031. 1l. 1s. *Longman and Rees.*

LIST OF PLATES.

FOUR *Plates; containing the Effigies of 60 Sovereigns of Russia.*
Map of the Russian Empire.

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EXTRACTS FROM THE PREFACE.

"FOR gratifying a laudable curiosity concerning the history of a people become so famous as the Russians, nothing satisfactory or systematical has been hitherto attempted in our language; a few hasty compilations excepted, extracted from the publications of prejudiced or ignorant travellers, and consequently abounding in misconceptions and errors, in which the very names of the persons and places cannot possibly be distinguished.

"Nor is this at all to be wondered at; as certainly it would have required no small degree of presumption in any one to sit down to compose a history for which he had no materials: however thus it has happened, that, when our celebrated writers have had occasion to speak of Russia, they have been obliged to do it in a cursory manner, and are then mistaken in almost all they have said of it.

"A foreigner, who should have even gone to Russia thirty or forty years ago for the express purpose of studying the history of the country, would have been much surprised at finding no assistance, unless he could have had access to the archives and the libraries where records are preserved; as at that time nothing had been printed on the subject of history, excepting a very succinct compendium,

which had no other merit than in being the firſt attempt of the kind, and was generally read becauſe a better was not to be had.

"Since that time the ſources of Ruſſian hiſtory have been greatly multiplied. Not that the Ruſſians are in poſſeſſion even now of a regular hiſtory of their nation; but they can trace the various events of it down to the reign of Tzar Alexey Mikhailovitch, father of Peter I.: theſe being recorded in the ſeveral chronicles that have been publiſhed within ſome years paſt, and in the works of ſeveral modern Ruſſians and a few learned Germans, who, being ſettled in Ruſſia, devoted their leiſure to illuſtrate and methodize its hiſtory.

"The hiſtory of Ruſſia has, however, one grand defect beyond that of moſt other countries, conſiſting in the difficulty too often met with in following the thread of it. This defect ariſes from the ſucceſſive appearance, as actors, of ſovereigns who owe their feeble dominion to the partitions that were made by their fathers of the different parts of their territory among their children: dominions ſoon to be ſubdivided farther, if they who poſſeſs them have a numerous offspring; or to be reunited to the body of the ſtate, if their princes die without male deſcendants: a confuſion which is frequently increaſed, as many of theſe petty ſovereigns, already but indiſtinctly known, bear the ſame name. It is true, they are diſtinguiſhed in the chronicles by the name of their fathers; but it often happens that theſe very fathers are ſtill more unknown than their children: and the hiſtory of them is rendered the more obſcure, ſince the authors of the chronicles have uſually either neglected it as indifferent, or only ſpeak of it when it has had an influence on the main hiſtory of Ruſſia. They appear upon the ſcene; we know not who they are: as ſoon as we are acquainted with them, they diſappear at once, and are as quickly forgotten. If ſome of their deſcendants come in turn on the ſtage, we are at a loſs to recollect their fathers." *P.* v.

"In the hope of giving an agreeable variety to the work, I have inſerted the preliminary diſſertations on the language and origin of the aborigines, the ſketch of Moſco, the learned diſquiſition on the principality of Tmutarakan, with the account of St. Peterſburg, and other cities conquered from the Swedes.

"The medals from which the plates are engraved were ſtruck by order of her Majeſty Catharine II. for the ſake of preſerving the likeneſſes of the ſovereigns, as well as they could be completed from the drawings, ſome of them ſufficiently rude, that were found in the monaſteries and other ancient buildings throughout the empire, which ſhe cauſed to be thoroughly ranſacked for that purpoſe." *P.* x.

EXTRACTS.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE, &c.

"THE Ruſſian empire, compriſing not only a very conſiderable portion of Europe, but likewiſe a third part of all Aſia, was not always of ſuch vaſt dimenſions. Ancient Ruſſia, the original ground-plot of the preſent monarchy, exceeding in magnitude every other that is mentioned in hiſtory, was the region of the Volkhof extending to the Dniepr; conſequently thoſe countries which have ever been, and ſtill are, the ſeat of the principal nation of the empire; that is, the Ruſſian. All the other diſtricts now belonging to it are the fruits of conqueſt.

"Ruſſia was even of old a very extenſive empire, conſiſting of five main diviſions, not differing in government, but merely in their ſeveral frontiers. Theſe diviſions were: 1. Great Ruſſia: 2. Little Ruſſia: 3. White Ruſſia: 4. Red Ruſſia: and 5. Black Ruſſia." *Vol.* I. *p.* 133.

"In the firſt centuries of the Chriſtian æra, ſeveral diſtinct ſwarms of people, of whom the principal were the Goths and Huns, habitually roved at large about thoſe regions of the Dniepr and the Volkhof, where afterwards the Ruſſian nation took a conſiſtent form. In the fifth century, while yet theſe people had no permanent ſeat, a horde of Slaves, or, as they are vulgarly called, Sclavonians, came hither from the Danube, and ſettled on the ſhores of the Dniepr, the Neva, and the Volkhof. Thus roſe, about that period, in the region of the firſt-mentioned river, a Slavonian ſtate, the capital of which was Kief; but, concerning the circumſtances and tranſactions whereof, hiſtory, for a courſe of

of ſeveral centuries, is totally ſilent. Only about the concluſion of the ninth century we begin to learn more of the events of the Slavonian nations reſiding here, as well as farther to the north and to the eaſt, as now a grand revolution happened with another Slavonian ſtate, dwelling on the river Volkof northwards, and whoſe capital was Novgorod *.

"The hiſtory of Novgorod, till the ninth century, is not leſs unknown than that of Kief. It ſeems to have always been commercial: by its ſituation it was enabled to carry on an eaſy commerce with the people reſiding on both ſhores of the Baltic; and the Emperor Conſtantine Porphyrogenneta ſpeaks of its commerce with Conſtantinople in his days. This Slavonian ſtate, it is probable, continued ſome centuries as a republic, and was ſo formidable to the ſurrounding nations, that it was grown into a common expreſſion: Who ſhall dare to oppoſe God and Great Novgorod! Towards the end of the ninth century, however, it obtained a ruler, and was changed into a principality. From this time forward the accounts of Ruſſian hiſtory aſſume a more authentic form. Though the Slavonians in and about Novgorod compoſed a very conſiderable republic, and on various occaſions were powerful enough to repel with impreſſion the attacks and aggreſſions of the neighbouring nations, yet their power alone was not always ſufficient for the defence of their country. The Tſchudes and the Biarmians, two bordering nations, frequently made incurſions on the Novgorodian territory; and when, according to the then practice of war, they had ravaged and waſted wherever they went, returned laden with ſpoil. Pirates, likewiſe, from the other ſide of the Baltic, who in the northern language were called Varagians, not leſs frequently made deſcents on their coaſts, and infeſted their country. As theſe Varages, however, were wont to enter into pay, and then fought againſt any to whom they were ſent by their paymaſters, they alſo came once to the aſſiſtance of the Novgorodians for a ſtipulated ſum. But, as on this occaſion they got more accurately acquainted with the country, it pleaſed them ſo much, that, after the termination of the war, when they received their diſmiſſion, ſo far from preparing to go back, they made diſpoſitions for abiding where they were. The leader of theſe Varages, Rurik, even built himſelf a town: his example was followed by two of his principal companions, who might alſo be his actual brothers, as they are called in hiſtory. Theſe proceedings muſt have appeared ſurpriſing to the Novgorodians, as they naturally expected that the Varages, who had been taken into pay, now that the war was ended, and they had their wages, would reimbark and croſs the ſea to their home. It was not long before that ſpirit of independence by which the Novgorodians had always been actuated, manifeſted itſelf in the diſpleaſure they ſhowed at the protracted ſojourn and the arrangements of theſe Varages, who, from being their mercenary troops, were now raiſing themſelves into their ſovereigns. They had recourſe to arms, in order to repel force by force. A famous Novgorodian, named Vadim, who had acquired by his feats in war the honourable ſurname of the Valiant, put himſelf at the head of the incenſed republicans. Rurik, however, and his companions were ſo far favoured by fortune, that Vadim, and ſeveral of the chieftains who were with him, forfeited their lives in this attempt to deliver their country from theſe ambitious gueſts. Rurik, by this unſucceſsful enterpriſe, and from the fear he had every where inſpired, found his conſequence increaſed. He thought he might now venture farther than before, and fix his authority on a firmer baſis. He therefore removed his ſeat from the city of Ladoga which he had built, to Novgorod itſelf, ſuppoſing the people ſufficiently humiliated for teſtifying their deſire to admit him as their ſovereign. The event confirmed his expectations; nothing more was attempted againſt him; and the hitherto free Novgorodian Slavi willingly acknowledged Rurik for their prince. On the death of his brethren and partners in the government, Sinaus and Truver, which

* "The word Novgorod, by its ſignification, Newtown, implies the exiſtence of an older town, the ruins of which are ſuppoſed to be thoſe at a little diſtance called Staroie Gorodiſtſchè, old rubbiſh of a town."

happened ſhortly after, he became ſole monarch of the Novgorodian ſtate, and the founder of an empire, which not only maintained itſelf, and was continually enlarging for nine hundred years, but where a line of deſcendants of this Rurik have ſat on the throne, under various fortunes, through an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of ſeveral centuries." *Vol.* i. *p.* 137.

IVAN I. SUBDUES THE TARTARS, AND UNITES THE PRINCIPALITIES.

"IVAN I. a covetous enterpriſing prince, inſtigated by his conſort, a Grecian princeſs, exerted all his faculties to deliver himſelf from the ignominious yoke of the Tartars, which ſeveral of his predeceſſors had already ſtruggled to ſhake off, to reſtore the authority and domination of the Grand Prince over the reſt of the princes, to enlarge the borders of his empire, to reunite with it the parts that had been torn away by the neighbours, and to ſettle the power of the Grand Princes on a firm and laſting foundation. At the age of only three-and-twenty years he aſcended the throne in 1462, but with the courage and reſolution of a man determined to execute what he deemed to be right and expedient. Indeed he ſometimes, in the execution of his plans, employed means that bordered on injuſtice and cruelty; but this he did in common with all conquerors.

"His firſt undertaking was not only to withdraw his allegiance from the Tartars, but to ſubjugate, and, as far as poſſible, to exterminate them entirely; and at the execution of this he laboured with unremitted aſſiduity. It is true they were no longer the old formidable enemy, as their power was very much divided; yet they were ever, as opportunities offered, making inroads into Ruſſia, carrying off captives by thouſands, deſtroying towns and villages by fire, and frequently inſiſted upon the homage of the Ruſſian princes. Ivan reſolved to put a ſtop to theſe proceedings, coſt what it would; he was determined to ſet his empire in ſecurity from the predatory expeditions of theſe hordes, and teach them moreover to reſpect his authority. It was thoſe of Kazan whom he pitched upon for the purpoſe of beginning, by their ſuppreſſion, the ſubjugation of all the Tartars. Two campaigns undertaken againſt them, in 1460 and 1468, were not indeed ſucceſsful; but the third, in 1470, terminated in an accommodation very honourable to him, in virtue whereof, though the Khan was to remain prince of his own Tartars, yet to be dependent on the Grand Prince, and to accept his dominion as a fief from him. The Khan of the Golden Horde, who demanded the former homage and tribute, on the refuſal of Ivan to comply with the requiſition, and his not appearing in the horde on the citation of the Khan, penetrated, in 1477, into Ruſſia: but Ivan dexterouſly took advantage of the abſence of the Khan and his warriors to make an attack upon the horde, and brought home with him conſiderable ſpoil. This determined the Khan to haſten back from Ruſſia; but in the mean time another Tartarian horde, on the retreat of the Ruſſians, carried off the women and children, deſtroyed the dwellings, and now fell upon the returning Khan himſelf, routed his army, and made an end of what was called the Golden Horde, from the ruins whereof the Kazanian and Krimean Tartars now greatly increaſed their numbers.

"Having ſubdued the Kazanian Tartars, and freed himſelf from the Golden Horde, Ivan now turned his arms againſt the Poles and Lithuanians. He was every where ſucceſsful and victorious. From the Lithuanians he retook many places that had been rent by them from Ruſſia. He likewiſe, in 1486, united, not indeed in the moſt equitable manner *, the conſiderable principality of Tver with the grand principality; and thus, as the reſt of the ſeparate principalities had one by one been recovered by ſome of his anceſtors to the grand principality, with the ſole exception of that of Severia, which ſtill had its peculiar ſovereign, he united in his graſp the collective force of the whole Ruſſian empire. He therefore was able to get on foot a great military force, which was the

* "The ſubjects of the prince of Tver having riſen in rebellion, applied for aſſiſtance of the Grand Prince; Ivan readily complied with their requeſt, and on that occaſion united Tver with the grand principality."

more

more formidable to the Tartars, as Ivan had now got fire-arms and cannon, and had learned to uſe them in war †, an advantage of which the Tartars were deſtitute.

"The power of Ivan preſſed hardeſt upon the opulent city of Novgorod, which, in conſequence of its wealth, its authority, and its privileges, frequently behaved with arrogance towards its rulers, and towards the Grand Prince. A plot being formed at Novgorod for the purpoſe of uniting that principality with Lithuania, and thereby with the kingdom of Poland, Ivan had firſt recourſe to gentle methods, admoniſhed the Novgorodians by an ambaſſador ‡ to adhere faithfully to him—they returned him a ſcornful anſwer; he threatened them with war—they armed for reſiſtance.

"With three armies Ivan now broke in upon their territory on three different ſides, and was the more rapidly victorious, as they were not ſupported from Lithuania. The vanquiſhed Novgorodians then conſented to own him for their maſter, on the ſame terms as their former princes had paid obedience. But Ivan demanded from Novgorod the ſame unconditional and unlimited obedience as was paid him at Moſco, and took whatever they would not voluntarily give him. He immediately broke up the popular aſſemblies cuſtomarily held for ages paſt §, abrogated the privileges of the city, demanded the ſurrender of a great part of their territories, ſentenced numbers of the inhabitants to death, confiſcated the eſtates of the condemned and of many others, and is ſaid to have conveyed to Moſco three hundred cart-loads of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, and ſtill more of furs, cloths, and other merchandiſe, the amount of his ſeveral ſeizures. On his having quitted the city, however, ſome diſcontents at his violent meaſures breaking out, which had been awed by his preſence, he then conveyed, in 1485, fifty of the principal Novgorodian families, who were the foremoſt in theſe diſcontents, into other Ruſſian towns, and repeated this tranſplantation a few years afterwards, by diſtributing thouſands of conſiderable Novgorodians into various towns of his empire, and ſending others from among the more loyal of his ſubjects in their place to Novgorod. By theſe proceedings the flouriſhing commerce of this city muſt have received a very ſenſible ſhock; but it ſuffered ſtill more by the impriſonment of all the German merchants reſiding in Novgorod, to the number of nine-and-forty. Not content with this, Ivan now confiſcated all the merchandiſes belonging to the Hanſeatic league, amounting to an immenſe value for theſe times *. From this period Novgorod never recovered its former ſplendour; and, to ſecure its obedience, Ivan appointed a viceroy there.

"In his invaſion of Livonia and Eſthonia, againſt which he marched his troops, on being extraordinarily provoked at ſome irreverend expreſſions which the people of Reval had taken the liberty to utter againſt him, he met with a ſtouter reſiſtance ‖.

"The Kazanian Tartars too made a hard

† "By means of an Italian, Ariſtotle of Bologna, whom he took into his ſervice as an architect, mint-maſter, and founder."

‡ "In the year 1471."

§ "He even cauſed the great bell, which was tolled when the people were to meet, to be conveyed to Moſco. It muſt be ſaid, however, that theſe popular aſſemblies were tumultuous enough. Was any one, for example, accuſed of ſome grievous crime, the judges aſſembled at the ſound of the great bell to hold a court of juſtice, and the people appeared to execute the ſentence. Every inhabitant with his grown-up ſons, brought each two ſtones under their arms. If the culprit was condemned, lapidation followed; this done, his houſe was plundered and then pulled down, and the vacant ſpot was ſold for the benefit of the corporation cheſt."

* "Ivan, however, afterwards reſtored to the merchants their liberty, but not their goods. The liberated merchants met with a ſtorm on their voyage home in the Baltic, and moſt of them periſhed in the billows."

‖ "A Ruſſian had been burnt at Reval, according to the law of that country, for coining counterfeit money, and another for ſome abominable crime. Several of the Ruſſians thought that puniſhment too ſevere; upon which they were anſwered,

a hard ſtruggle towards the latter end of his reign, for ſhaking off the Ruſſian yoke he had impoſed upon them; but Ivan had ſo firmly eſtabliſhed the Grand Princely authority, that his ſon Vaſſilly was very well able to keep the Tartars in awe. They indeed did ſet up a new Khan at Kazan, but a Ruſſian voivode, who was aſſociated with him, properly directed the government conformably with the will of the Grand Prince, as in our times the Ruſſian ambaſſador always reigned by King Staniſlaus; and, notwithſtanding the two ſhort revolutions in Poland, afterwards ſoon reigned again. The Kazanians, however, could by no means reliſh ſuch a government; they murdered the Ruſſian vicegerent, expelled their Khan, united themſelves with the Krimean Tartars, and carried their arms even to the gates of Moſco ‡, where the Grand Prince could only purchaſe an exemption from a general pillage by preſents, and the promiſe of a new oath of allegiance; though he afterwards had the good fortune to render himſelf once more maſter of Kazan. Pſcove, a city that had been built by Olga, and was the rival of Novgorod in commerce, but where on that account the ſame free and licentious ſpirit prevailed as in that city, experienced under this Grand Prince, in 1509, a ſimilar fate with that of Novgorod; and the laſt diſtinct principality, that of Severia, accrued by him completely to the grand principality: ſo that under him all the Ruſſian principalities were again united, and compoſed but one empire. The name Tzar § began about the cloſe of his reign to be given to him; but it was his ſon and ſucceſſor who firſt aſſumed that title in the ſtead of Grand Prince." *Vol.* i. *p.* 278.

IVAN II. SURNAMED THE TERRIBLE.

"HE is depicted by writers of his own country as a tyrant, and by foreigners as a devil, and even in many reſpects certainly merited theſe appellations; though he likewiſe, on account of ſome particular actions, as well as for ſeveral regulations tending to the real benefit of his country, deſerves to be numbered with the laudable rulers of the Ruſſian empire. He was no more than three years of age at the death of his father in 1533; and the empire, which the two laſt ſucceſſive ſovereigns had elevated to a high degree of conſequence, had nearly become, during his minority, again the theatre of inteſtine wars and devaſtations, and again been crumbled into ſeveral parts. His paternal uncles ſeem to have had deſigns upon the throne; at leaſt this ſuſpicion furniſhed an occaſion to his mother, who held the reins of government during his minority, for having thoſe princes taken off. The empire was, notwithſtanding, in a very deplorable ſtate. The regent gave herſelf up to pleaſurable purſuits, being entirely unacquainted with the buſineſs of government; and on her death, in 1538, the chiefs of the nobility, who filled the higheſt offices, uſurped the ſovereign power. Hence numberleſs parties ſprung up, and a real anarchy enſued; as almoſt every one of the great perſonages cared only for himſelf, for his purſe, and his family, and was not more unconcerned about any thing, than about the general welfare. But no ſooner had the young prince attained his ſeventeenth year, than he took upon himſelf the government, in 1547, and that with ſuch manly fortitude and ſo much im-

anſwered, that if the people of Reval ſhould catch even the Grand Prince at that crime, they would burn him with no more heſitation than they would a dog."

‡ "1519. The Tartars are reported to have made 300,000 priſoners on this expedition, the greater part of whom were ſent to Kaffa in the Krimea, there expoſed to ſale, and purchaſed by the Turks, ſo that Turkey was in a manner filled with Ruſſian ſlaves."

§ "This title occaſionally appears even earlier in the Ruſſian hiſtory; and it may have begun to come up before the Tartars; but during the paramount ſovereignty of that people over Ruſſia, no Grand Prince preſumed to take it on himſelf. The old Ruſſian authors employ this title in ſpeaking of the Greek emperors; likewiſe ſome Tartarian rulers called themſelves Tzars, and ſo perhaps Ivan adopted that title after he had entirely conquered the Tartars. The Ruſſian interpreters uniformly tranſlate this word by emperor."

preſſion,

preſſion, as were never exceeded by any Ruſſian prince before him. He ſaw himſelf ſurrounded on all ſides by factions, and to ſuppreſs theſe was now the firſt object of his care. But in this he was not at all ſcrupulous in the choice of his means, employing any that occurred, ſo they tended to the accompliſhment of his aim, were they never ſo harſh and ſevere; accordingly, his wrath not unfrequently fell indiſcriminately on the innocent and on the guilty. His next care was, as much as poſſible, to incapacitate the Tartars, who had now recovered from the deadly blows that had been given them by Ivan, from again infeſting his empire. The traces, which he ſaw in many parts of his dominions, of the horrible deſolation committed by this enemy, and which in part originated only in his father's time, prompted him to the reſolution never to neglect an opportunity for making a campaign againſt them. Accordingly, in 1551, he marched, even in the depth of winter, with an army to the ſiege of Kazan. But the army loudly and publicly expreſſed their diſlike to this meaſure, declaring that no good commander would ever think of conducting his troops, amidſt the inconveniences of the winter ſeaſon, to ſieges and battles, or go and encounter the enemy in their quarters.

"Ivan, by nature extremely choleric, and immediately provoked by any oppoſition to his orders, puniſhed with great ſeverity the officers of his army, as well as many of the privates; and then, muſtering the troops, he ſelected from them a number of warriors, whom he formed into a body, under the name of Streltzi (guards), and which corps was the foundation of a regular ſtanding army in Ruſſia *: for till then, only on the breaking out of a war, the nobleman preſented himſelf with his people, whom he armed at his own expenſe.

"The better to keep the Kazanians in awe, he did what his anceſtors ought long ago to have done—he built forts againſt them on the frontiers: and this ſtill not appearing ſufficient to deter them from annoying the empire, he beſieged Kazan, and took it by ſpringing a mine; a method entirely new and ſurpriſing to the Tartars †. In this war alſo religion interfered, as Ivan the Terrible was a conſtant attendant on maſs; and ſcarcely was Kazan in his power, but the Khan muſt allow himſelf to be baptized, and the next ſtep was to convert all the Tartarian moſques into Chriſtian churches.

"Thus the Kazan-Tartarian empire was now annexed to Ruſſia, as was likewiſe the Aſtrakhanian only two years after. But Ivan annexed not only theſe empires to his country; a totally new world, an empire of uncommon magnitude, expanded itſelf to the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſian Tzars under his reign, in the diſcovery of Siberia at that time made, the native country of animals that bear the choiceſt furs, the inexhauſtible magazine of ſalt, and particularly rich in the metals of ſilver and copper. The Grand Prince Ivan Vaſſilievitch had already ſent out a body of men, who penetrated acroſs the Ingrian mountains, and traverſed all the diſtricts as far as the river Oby. But, amidſt the urgent affairs of government, the diſcoveries they made inſenſibly fell into oblivion. Some

* "Generally known under the name of Strelitzes, particularly on account of the ſhare they had in the rebellion excited againſt Peter I. by his ſiſter Sophia, for which that monarch puniſhed them with dreadful ſeverity. They were ſomewhat ſimilar to the Janiſſaries at Conſtantinople, undiſciplined like them, and more formidable on that account than for their bravery."

† "Ivan, on his entering Kazan, after taking it by ſtorm, ſay the hiſtorians, wept at the ſight of the ravages that were made, and the heaps of the dead bodies. Now, certainly, that an Ivan with his hard and unfeeling heart, who would frequently cauſe perſons to be murdered in cold blood, who was ever wantonly employing the moſt cruel tortures, ſome of which now on record are unexampled in horror, ſhould be forced to ſhed tears over a conquered city, may be conſidered as a ſtriking proof, that a town taken by ſtorm muſt be a ſight uncommonly dreadful and ſhocking to humanity. Would, therefore, kings and queens, and their miniſters in their cabinets, ſo eaſily put their ſignatures to orders for ſtorming towns, if it were poſſible, immediately after the ſtorming, for them to be conducted thither, and be ſpectators of the havoc and cruelties committed?"

years

years afterwards a merchant, named Stroganof, who was proprietor of ſome ſaltworks on the confines of Siberia, was curious to gain a farther knowledge of that country, which was likewiſe inhabited by Tartars, whoſe Khan reſided in the capital Sibir. Perceiving among the perſons who came to him on affairs of trade, men who belonged to no nation with which he was acquainted, he put ſeveral inquiries to them concerning the place whence they came, and once ſent a few of his people with them back to their country. Theſe people brought with them, at their return from the regions they had now explored, and which proved to be this very Siberia, a great quantity of invaluable furs, and thus opened to their maſter a new road to wealth. However, not ſo covetous as to wiſh to keep this treaſure to himſelf, he ſent information of it to the court, and the attention of government was once more directed to this country. But the conqueſt of it, and its conjunction with Ruſſia, was reſerved for an adventurer named Timofeyef Yermak. This Yermak, at the head of a gang of Don Kozaks, had made it his practice to rob and plunder the caravans and paſſengers that occaſionally frequented the roads, as well as the inhabitants, wherever he came; and was ſo fortunate as to eſcape the ſearch of the Ruſſian troops that had been ſent out againſt him, and his band, which conſiſted of no fewer than ſix thouſand men. On their flight, he and his people accidentally came to the dwelling of Stroganof, where, hearing much talk about Siberia, and being perſons who had nothing to loſe, and therefore might put all to the hazard, they ſoon formed a plan to penetrate farther into that country, and there ſeek at once their ſafety and their fortune. After numerous ſtruggles and conflicts with the natives, which greatly reduced their numbers, they at length conquered the capital, and ſhortly after the whole country. Yermak now preſented the fruit of his toilſome and perilous victories to his Tzar Ivan, in hopes of obtaining a pardon for his former depredations, which was granted him accordingly. By the building of ſeveral towns, and conſtructing a number of forts, the poſſeſſion of this country was ſoon permanently ſecured. The leſs and the greater Kabardey was alſo added to Ruſſia in the reign of Ivan. This Tzar, however, not only enlarged the circumference of his empire, partly by force of arms and partly by accident, but he reſolved to reform his people, to render them more poliſhed, more ſkilful, and induſtrious; but this he found to be the moſt arduous enterpriſe he could poſſibly have undertaken. The inſuperable impediments which threw themſelves in the way of the execution of this grand work, were the principal incitements to thoſe frequent acts of cruelty and deſpotiſm which have covered his memory with ſo deep a ſtain.

"1542. He firſt began his attempts in this deſign by the publication of a new code of laws, in which he collected ſuch of the ancient ſtatutes as were ſtill in being, ſome of which he improved, and added to their number many new ones; hoping by this means to introduce more order into his empire, and to improve the proſperity of his ſubjects. But he preſently perceived that the temper of his Ruſſians was not to be altered by laws and regulations, but rather by harſh treatment, ſevere puniſhments, and painful corrections. Even the great men for the moſt part ſpent their lives in a torpid indolence of mind, and in a total ignorance of whatever can elevate and improve the human intellect. Ivan, who had learnt, from the foreigners he had drawn into his empire, how far better informed, more accompliſhed, and intelligent the members of the higher ranks in other countries were, frequently repreſented theſe differences to his courtiers: the conſequence was, that they became his enemies. By this intercourſe with foreigners he was enabled to form ſome notion of the doctrines and rites of other religious communions, and granted them a general toleration. This incenſed the bigoted clergy againſt him, whom he had already offended by impoſing on them a contribution to the exigencies of the ſtate: a requiſition which the ſpiritual claſs had always taken much amiſs from their governors. Theſe two claſſes, the nobility and the clergy, now ſtrove by every means in their power to counteract all his efforts for improving the condition of Ruſſia; as, either from the love of their habitual indulgences, they would not, or from their dulneſs and ſtupidity they could

not, perceive the improvement. By this behaviour, however, the Tzar was moved to adopt the reſolution of forcing on his ſubjects the benefits they were unwilling to accept, and to make away with every one who ſhould oppoſe his deſigns; in purſuance of which reſolution he was often extremely cruel †. His puniſhments were generally indeed exerciſed upon the great, whoſe perverſeneſs and obſtinacy in reſiſting his undertakings ſeemed abſolutely unconquerable. But his acts of vengeance and cruelty increaſed as well in frequency as in horror from the time he thought he had detected a plot for depriving him of his life, and transferring the empire to the kings of Poland. Beſides theſe two cauſes, which irritated him ſo much, and furniſhed him with opportunities for perpetually gratifying that propenſion to cruelty and tortures which was now by long indulgence become to him a ſecond nature, and whereby it was now perpetually increaſing, what ſeem particularly to have enraged him were the oppreſſion exerciſed by the great over the bulk of the people, and their rapacity which made them bend the laws for money, ſo that the innocent was frequently obliged to ſubmit to the more wealthy criminal *; for towards the common people he was, upon the whole, juſt and liberal.

"Novgorod, which Ivan had already chaſtiſed, again ſeverely felt his power §. The archbiſhop of that place was ſuſpected of having, in concert with a great part of the inhabitants, framed a plot for delivering the town and its territory into the hands of the king of Poland. Immediately on having intelligence of this, Ivan marched ſtraight to Novgorod, and there held a horribly bloody tribunal. Whoever had been in any manner implicated in the conſpiracy was executed, with various circumſtances of cruelty; and this was the lot of five-and-twenty thouſand perſons §. The city of Pſcove was menaced with a ſimilar viſitation; but Ivan, on their voluntary ſubmiſſion, contented himſelf with numerous confiſcations and the execution of a few monks." *Vol.* i. *p.* 286.

QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND HIGHLY ESTEEMED BY IVAN II.

"IT was a great and unexpected ſatisfaction to this Tzar, that, during his reign, in 1553, ſome Engliſhmen, who had ſailed on a voyage of diſcovery, landed in Ruſſia, at the place which is at preſent the port of Archangel; and Ivan now became acquainted with perſons of that nation, who ſoon, by their abilities and their deportment, acquired his favour to ſuch a degree, that he encouraged the Engliſh commerce by all poſſible means, and thus opened a new channel of intercourſe between his Ruſſians and a highly poliſhed people, whereby they obtained a freſh incitement to activity and induſtry.

† "He frequently cauſed, for example, the malefactors to be torn to pieces by bears.—For finding out thoſe who were in any degree diſaffected to him, he employed a body-guard, called opritſchniki, or the elect. Whoever was impeached by theſe, was drawn forth and executed; and his property devolving to the delator, theſe ſpies and executioners (for it was they who generally executed the ſentence of death) not unfrequently, for the ſake of laying hold of the effects of ſuch as they pleaſed, accuſed him though innocent. Theſe opritſchniki were preciſely what the company of Marat was ſome years ago in France, who drowned or otherwiſe put to death the royaliſts of Nantes. Ivan likewiſe appointed ſimilar drownings; as, when he cauſed a number of people to be brought on a frozen river, then had the ice cut round them, on which the poor wretches fell in and periſhed in the water."

* "Judges, who were convicted of having made the laws yield to money, were ſcourged, or drawn in gaudy clothes about the town in a cart by the hangman's deputies. If any one already puniſhed was caught in the ſame wicked practices again, he was ſure of having death for his reward."

† "In the year 1570."

§ "The archbiſhop was ſhut up in a monaſtery.—Meeting the Tzar, on his entrance into Moſco, with the crozier in his hand, the Tzar ſaid to him: 'Thou 'traitor, the ſtaff in thy hand is not a croſs to bleſs me, but a club to knock me 'down. Thou haſt combined with the traitorous townſmen. Thou calleſt thy-'ſelf a ſhepherd; but thou art a wolf'."

duſtry. His affection for the Engliſh in a ſhort time proceeded ſo far, that he even formed the deſign of marrying an Engliſh lady; and he had not only the higheſt eſteem for Queen Elizabeth, but repeatedly begged of her to grant him an aſylum, if he ſhould ever be reduced to the neceſſity of fleeing from his ſubjects, who were extremely ungrateful to him. He had indeed ſo little reliance on his ſafety, that he at one time even made preparations for his departure from Ruſſia; but on the earneſt ſolicitations of his ſubjects, he conſented to remain, and terminated, in 1584, in peace and repoſe, his life and his reign.

"As his irritable temper impelled him to numberleſs acts of cruelty, ſo he once, for what cauſe is not known §, even ſtruck his eldeſt ſon ſuch a violent blow on the head, with a ſtaff that he happened to have in his hand, as to occaſion his death: an inexpreſſibly calamitous event for Ivan, who reproached himſelf with it all the reſt of his life, and was productive of a ſeries of convulſions and troubles in the empire, which only ceaſed with the acceſſion of a new family to the throne: for though Ivan at his death left behind him two ſons, yet the elder of them was infirm both in body and mind ‖, and the younger ſtill in his infancy."—*Vol.* i. *p.* 301.

(To be continued.)

LXXII. *The Sports and Paſtimes of the People of England:* including the rural and domeſtic Recreations, May-games, Mummeries, Pageants, Proceſſions, and pompous Spectacles, from the earlieſt Period to the preſent Time: illuſtrated by Engravings, ſelected from ancient Paintings; in which are repreſented moſt of the popular Diverſions. By Joseph Strutt. Royal 4to. pp. 301. 2l. 12s. 6d. Coloured 5l. 5s. *White.*

FORTY Plates, repreſenting Chefs Players, Hunting, Hawking, Archery and Slinging, Wreſtling, Games with the Ball, Bat and Ball, the Quintain, Tilting at the Ring, &c. Juſting, Tournament, Juſts, Mummeries. Saxon Gleemen, Dancing, Tumbling, Dancing, Leaping, &c. Balancing, tutored Bears, tutored Animals, Tricks taught to Horſes, Animals imitated, Prize Fighting, Bowling, Kayles, Muſic, Chefs Tables, &c. Cards, Pageantry, Children's Games, Hoodman Blind, Hot Cockles, &c. unknown Games.

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§ "From ſome accounts it appears as if the prince had acted on ſome occaſion, ſo as to raiſe ſuſpicions in his father that he was aiming at the crown."

‖ "It was his principal amuſement, while prince, to go and ſtrike the bells in the church belfries. (In Ruſſia it is the practice to ſtrike the bells with a rope tied to the clapper, rather than to ring them.) His father often forbid him; but he found ſuch delight in this amuſement, that he would not leave it off."

Woman

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Appendix.—An Account of the Manuſcripts from which the Subjects of the Plates are taken.

EXTRACTS FROM THE INTRODUCTION.

"IN order to form a juſt eſtimation of the character of any particular people, it is abſolutely neceſſary to inveſtigate the ſports and paſtimes moſt generally prevalent among them. War, policy, and other contingent circumſtances, may effectually place men, at different times, in different points of view; but, when we follow them into their retirements, where no diſguiſe is neceſſary, we are moſt likely to ſee them in their true ſtate, and may beſt judge of their natural diſpoſitions. Unfortunately, all the information that remains reſpecting the ancient inhabitants of this iſland is derived from foreign writers, partially acquainted with them as a people, and totally ignorant of their domeſtic cuſtoms and amuſements: the ſilence, therefore, of the contemporary hiſtorians on theſe important ſubjects leaves us without the power of tracing them with the leaſt degree of certainty; and as it is my intention, in the following pages, to confine myſelf as much as poſſible to poſitive intelligence, I ſhall ſtudiouſly endeavour to avoid all controverſial and conjectural arguments. I mean alſo to treat upon ſuch paſtimes only as have been practiſed in this country: but, as many of them originated on the continent, frequent digreſſions, by way of illuſtrations, muſt neceſſarily occur; theſe, however, I ſhall make it my buſineſs to render as conciſe as the nature of the ſubject will permit them to be.

"We learn, from the imperfect hints of ancient hiſtory, that, when the Romans firſt invaded Britain, her inhabitants were a bold, active, and warlike people, tenacious of their native liberty, and capable of bearing great fatigue; to which they were probably inured by an early education, and conſtant purſuit of ſuch amuſements as beſt ſuited the profeſſion of a ſoldier; including *hunting*, *running*, *leaping*, *ſwimming*, and other exertions requiring ſtrength and agility of body. Perhaps the ſkill which the natives of Devonſhire and Cornwall retain to the preſent day in *hurling* and *wreſtling* may properly be conſidered as a veſtige of Britiſh activity. After the Romans had conquered Britain, they impreſſed ſuch of the young men as were able to

bear arms for foreign ſervice, and enervated the ſpirit of the people by the importation of their own luxurious manners and habits; ſo that the latter part of the Britiſh hiſtory exhibits to our view a ſlothful and effeminate race of men, totally diveſted of that martial diſpoſition, and love of freedom, which ſo ſtrongly marked the character of their progenitors; and their amuſements, no doubt, partook of the ſame weakneſs and puerility.

"The arrival of the Saxons forms a new epoch in the annals of this country. Theſe military mercenaries came profeſſedly to aſſiſt the Britons againſt their inceſſant tormentors the Picts and Caledonians; but no ſooner had they eſtabliſhed their footing in the land, than they invited more of their countrymen to join them, and, turning their arms againſt their wretched employers, became their moſt dangerous and moſt inexorable enemies, and in proceſs of time obtained full poſſeſſion of the largeſt and beſt part of the iſland; whence aroſe a total change in the form of government, laws, manners, cuſtoms, and habits of the people.

"The ſportive exerciſes and paſtimes practiſed by the Saxons appear to have been ſuch as were common among the ancient northern nations; and moſt of them conſiſted of roluſt exerciſes. In an old chronicle of Norway, we find it recorded of Olaf Tryggeſon, a king of that country, that he was ſtronger and more nimble than any man in his dominions. He could climb up the rock Smalſerhorn, and fix his ſhield upon the top of it; he could walk round the outſide of a boat upon the oars, while the men were rowing; he could play with three darts, alternately throwing them in the air, and always kept two of them up, while he held the third in one of his hands; he was ambidexter, and could caſt two darts at once; he excelled all the men of his time in ſhooting with the bow; and he had no equal in ſwimming. Another northern hero, whoſe name was Kolſon, boaſts of nine accompliſhments in which he was well ſkilled: 'I know,' ſays he, 'how to play at cheſs; I can 'engrave Runic letters; I am expert 'at my book; I know how to handle 'the tools of the ſmith: I can traverſe 'the ſnow on ſcates of wood; I excel 'in ſhooting with the bow: I uſe the 'oar with facility; I can ſing to the 'harp; and I compoſe verſes.' The reader will, I doubt not, anticipate me in my obſervation, that the acquirements of Kolſon indicate a much more liberal education than thoſe of the Norwegian monarch: it muſt, however, be obſerved that Kolſon lived in an age poſterior to him; and alſo that he made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land; which may probably account in great meaſure for his literary qualifications. Yet, we are well aſſured that *learning* did not form any prominent feature in the education of a young nobleman during the Saxon government: it is notorious, that Ælfred the Great was twelve years of age before he learned to read; and that he owed his knowledge of letters to accident, rather than to the intention of his tutors*.

"Indeed, it is not by any means ſurpriſing, under the Saxon government, when the times were generally very turbulent, and the exiſtence of peace exceedingly precarious, and when the perſonal exertions of the opulent were ſo often neceſſary for the preſervation of their lives and property, that ſuch exerciſes as inured the body to fatigue, and biaſſed the mind to military purſuits, ſhould have conſtituted the chief part of a young nobleman's education: accordingly, we find that *hunting*, *hawking*, *leaping*, *running*, *wreſtling*, *caſting of darts*, and other paſtimes which neceſſarily required great exertions of bodily ſtrength, were taught them in their adoleſcence. Theſe amuſements engroſſed the whole of their attention, every one ſtriving to excel his fellow; for, hardineſs, ſtrength, and valour, outbalanced, in the public eſtimation, the accompliſhments of the mind: and therefore literature, which flouriſhes beſt in tranquillity and retirement, was conſidered as a purſuit

* "He ſaw by chance a book adorned with paintings in the hands of his mother, that attracted his notice: and he expreſſed his deſire to have it. She promiſed to comply with his requeſt, on condition that he learned to read it; which it ſeems he did: and this trifling incident laid the groundwork of his future ſcholarſhip. Aſſer. in Vit. Ælfredi."

unworthy the notice of a ſoldier, and only requiſite in the gloomy receſſes of the cloiſter.

"Among the vices of the Anglo-Saxons may be reckoned their propenſity to gaming, and eſpecially with the *dice*; which they derived from their anceſtors; for Tacitus aſſures us that the ancient Germans would not only hazard all their wealth, but even ſtake their liberty, upon the turn of the dice; 'and he who loſes,' ſays the author, 'ſubmits to ſervitude, though younger 'and ſtronger than his antagoniſt, and 'patiently permits himſelf to be bound, 'and ſold in the market; and this 'madneſs they dignify by the name of 'honour.' *Cheſs* was alſo a favourite game with the Saxons; and likewiſe *backgammon*, ſaid to have been invented about the tenth century. It appears moreover, that a large portion of the night was appropriated to the purſuit of theſe ſedentary amuſements. In the reign of Cnut the Dane, this practice was ſanctioned by the example of royalty, and followed by the nobility*: the clergy, however, were prohibited from playing at games of chance, by the eccleſiaſtical canons eſtabliſhed in in the reign of Ædgar." *P.* i.

"A foreign writer, who viſited this country at the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century †, ſays of the Engliſh, that they are 'ſerious like the Germans, 'lovers of ſhow, liking to be followed 'wherever they go by whole troops of 'ſervants who wear their maſter's arms 'in ſilver.' This was no new propenſity: the Engliſh nobility at all times affected great parade, ſeldom appearing abroad without large trains of ſervitors and retainers; and the lower claſſes of the people delighted in gaudy ſhows, pageants, and proceſſions.

"If we go back to the times of the Saxons, we ſhall find that, ſoon after their eſtabliſhment in Britain, their monarchs aſſumed great ſtate. Bede tells us, that Edwin king of Northumberland lived in much ſplendour, never travelling without a numerous retinue; and when he walked in the ſtreets of his own capital, even in the times of peace, he had a ſtandard borne before him ‡. It is unneceſſary to multiply citations; for which reaſon, I ſhall only add another. Cnut the Dane, who is ſaid to have been the richeſt and moſt magnificent prince of his time in Europe, rarely appeared in public, without being followed by a train of three thouſand horſemen, well mounted and completely armed. Theſe attendants, who were called *houſe carles*, formed a corps of body guards, or houſehold troops, and were appointed for the honour and ſafety of that prince's perſon. The examples of royalty were followed by the nobility and perſons of opulence.

"In the middle ages, the love of ſhow was carried to an extravagant length; and, as a man of faſhion was nothing leſs than a man of letters, thoſe ſtudies that are beſt calculated to improve the mind were held in little eſtimation.

"The courts of princes and the caſtles of the great barons were daily crowded with numerous retainers, who were always welcome to their maſters' tables. The noblemen had their privy counſellors, treaſurers, marſhals, conſtables, ſtewards, ſecretaries, chaplains, heralds, purſuivants, pages, henchmen, or guards, trumpeters, and all the other officers of the royal court. To theſe may be added whole companies of minſtrels, mimics, jugglers, tumblers, rope-dancers, and players; and eſpecially on days of public feſtivity, when, in every one of the apartments opened for the reception of the gueſts, were exhibited variety of entertainments, according to the taſte of the times, but in which propriety had very little ſhare; the whole forming a ſcene of pompous confuſion, where feaſting, drinking, muſic, dancing, tumbling, ſinging, and buffoonery, were jumbled together, and mirth excited too often at the expenſe of common decency. If we turn to the third book of Fame, a poem, written by our own countryman Chaucer, we ſhall find a perfect picture

* "Biſhop Ætheric, having obtained admiſſion to Cnut about midnight upon ſome urgent buſineſs, found the king engaged with his courtiers at play, ſome at dice and ſome at cheſs. Hiſt. Ramſien. apud Gale, vol. i. an. 85."

† "Paul Hentzner. See his Itinerary, written in 1598."

‡ "This ſtandard was of the kind called by the Romans *tufa*, and by the Engliſh *tuuf*: it was made with feathers of various colours, in the form of a globe, and faſtened upon a pole. Bede, Eccl. Hiſt. lib. ii. cap. 16."

of

of theſe tumultuous court entertainments, drawn, I doubt not, from reality, and perhaps without any great exaggeration. It may be thus expreſſed in modern language: Minſtrels of every kind were ſtationed in the receptacles for the gueſts; among them were jeſters, that related tales of mirth and of ſorrow; excellent players upon the harp, with others of inferior merit ſeated on various ſeats below them, who mimicked their performances like apes to excite laughter; behind them, at a great diſtance, was a prodigious number of other minſtrels, making a great ſound with cornets, ſhaulms, flutes, horns, pipes of various kinds, and ſome of them made with green corn, ſuch as are uſed by ſhepherds' boys; there were alſo Dutch pipers to aſſiſt thoſe who choſe to dance either 'love-dances, ſprings, or rayes,' or any other new-deviſed meaſures. Apart from theſe were ſtationed the trumpeters and players on the clarion; and other ſeats were occupied by different muſicians playing variety of mirthful tunes. There were alſo preſent large companies of jugglers, magicians, and tregetors, who exhibited ſurpriſing tricks by the aſſiſtance of natural magic.

"Vaſt ſums of money were expended in ſupport of theſe abſurd and childiſh ſpectacles, by which the eſtates of the nobility were conſumed, and the public treaſuries often exhauſted." *P.* xxi.

"In the eleventh year of Henry VII. cards are firſt mentioned among the games prohibited by the law; and at that time they ſeem to have been very generally uſed; for, the edict expreſsly forbids the practice of card playing to apprentices, excepting the duration of the Chriſtmas holidays, and then only in their maſters' houſes. We learn from Stow, that theſe holidays extended 'from All-Hallows evening to 'the day after Candlemas-day, when,' ſays the hiſtorian, 'there was, among 'other ſports, playing at cards for 'counters, nailes, and points in every 'houſe, more for paſtime than for 'gain.' The recreations prohibited by proclamation in the reign of Edward III. excluſive of the games of chance, are thus ſpecified: throwing of ſtones, wood, or iron; playing at hand-ball, foot-ball, club-ball, and *cambucam*, which I take to have been a ſpecies of goff, and probably received its name from the crooked bat with which it was played. Theſe games, as before obſerved, were not forbidden from any particular evil tendency in themſelves, but becauſe they engroſſed too much of the leiſure and attention of the populace, and diverted their minds from the purſuits of a more martial nature. I ſhould not forget to add, that 'bull-baiting and cock-fighting' are included with 'other diſhoneſt games as trivial and uſeleſs.' In the reign of Edward IV. we find coits, cloſh or claiſh, kayles or ninepins, half-bowl, hand-in and hand-out, with quick-borde, claſſed among the unlawful amuſements; which liſt was conſiderably augmented in the ſucceeding reigns, and eſpecially in the eighteenth year of Henry VIII. when bowling, loggating, playing at tennice, dice, cards, and tables, or backgammon, were included.

"In the preamble to the Parliamentary Statutes, as early as the ſixth year of Edward III. there is a clauſe prohibiting of boys or others from playing at barres, or ſnatch-hood, or any other improper games, in the King's palace at Weſtminſter during the ſitting of the Parliament; neither might they, by ſtriking or otherwiſe, prevent any one from paſſing peaceably about his buſineſs.

"In modern times, the penal laws have been multiplied, and much invigorated, in order to reſtrain the ſpirit of gambling; and in ſome meaſure they have had a ſalutary effect; but the evil is ſo faſcinating and ſo general, that in all probability it will never be totally eradicated from the minds of the people. The frequent repetition and enforcement of the ſtatutes in former times, proves that they were then, as they are now, inadequate to the ſuppreſſion of gaming for a long continuance; and, when one paſtime was prohibited, another was preſently invented to ſupply its place. I remember, about twenty years back, the magiſtrates cauſed all the ſkittle-frames in or about the city of London to be taken up, and prohibited the playing at Dutch-pins, nine-pins, or in long bowling-allies, when in many places the game of nine-holes was revived as a ſubſtitute, with the new name of *hubble the juſtice*, becauſe the populace had taken it into their heads to imagine that

that the power of the magiſtrates extended only to the prevention of ſuch paſtimes as were ſpecified by name in the public acts, and not to any new ſpecies of diverſion.

"The general decay of thoſe manly and ſpirited exerciſes, which formerly were practiſed in the vicinity of the metropolis, has not ariſen from any want of inclination in the people, but from the want of places proper for the purpoſe: ſuch as in times paſt had been allotted to them are now covered with buildings, or ſhut up by enclo-ſures; ſo that, if it were not for ſkittles, Dutch-pins, four-corners, and the like paſtimes, they would have no amuſements for the exerciſe of the body; and theſe amuſements are only to be met with in places belonging to common drinking-houſes, for which reaſon their play is ſeldom productive of much benefit, but more frequently becomes the prelude to drunkenneſs and debauchery. This evil has been increaſing for a long ſeries of years; and honeſt Stow laments the retrenchments of the grounds appropriated for martial paſtimes, which had begun to take place in his day. 'Why,' ſays he, 'ſhould I ſpeak of the ancient exercíſes of the long bow, by the citizens of this city, now almoſt clean left off and forſaken? I over-paſs it; for, by the means of cloſeing in of common grounds, our archers, for want of room to ſhoot abroad, creep into bowling-alleys and ordinarie dicing-houſes neer home, where they have room enough to hazard their money at unlawful games.' He alſo tells us, that 'Northumberland Houſe, in the pariſh of Saint Katherine Coleman, belonged to Henry Percy Earl of Northumberland, in the thirty-third year of Henry VI.; but of late, being deſerted by that noble family, the gardens were converted into bowling-alleys, and the other parts of the eſtate into dicing-houſes. But bowling-alleys and houſes for the exerciſe of dicing and other unlawful games are at this time ſo greatly increaſed in other parts of the city and its ſuburbs, that this parent ſpot,' or, as he afterwards calls it, 'the ancient and only patron of miſrule, is forſaken of its gameſters.' And here we may add the following remark from an author ſomewhat more ancient than Stow: 'Common bowling-alleys are privy mothes that eat up the credit of many idle citizens, whoſe gaynes at home are not able to weighe downe theyr loſſes abroad; whoſe ſhoppes are ſo farre from maintaining their play, that theyr wives and children cry out for bread, and go to bedde ſupperleſs ofte in the yeere.' In another place, his reflections are more general, and he exclaims, 'Oh, what a wonderful change is this! our wreaſtling at armes is turned to wallowing in ladies' laps, our courage to cowardice, our running to royot, our bowes into bowls, and our darts into diſhes.'

"The evils complained of by theſe writers were then in their infancy: they have in the preſent day attained to a gigantic ſtature; and we may add to them E. O. tables, alſo other tables for gambling diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *noir et rouge*; pharo-banks, and many more faſhionable novelties, equally as detrimental to morality, and as equally deſtructive to the fortunes of thoſe who purſue them, as any of the recreations of the former times. Even horſe-racing, which anciently was conſidered as a liberal ſport, and proper for the amuſement of a gentleman, has been of late years degraded into a dangerous ſpecies of gambling, by no means the leſs deſerving of cenſure, becauſe it is faſhionable, and countenanced by perſons of the higheſt rank and fortune." *P.* xliv.

EXTRACTS.

PRIVILEGES FOR HUNTING UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS—TYRANNICAL PROCEEDINGS—ANECDOTE OF JAMES I.

"DURING the tyrannical government of William the Norman, and his two ſons who ſucceeded him, the reſtrictions concerning the killing of game were by no means meliorated. The privileges of hunting in the royal foreſts were confined to the king and his favourites; and, to render theſe receptacles for the beaſts of the chaſe more capacious, or to make new ones, whole villages were depopulated, and places of divine worſhip overthrown; not the leaſt regard being paid to the miſeries of the ſuffering inhabitants, or the cauſe of religion. Theſe deſpotic proceedings were not confined to royalty,

royalty, as may be proved from good authority; and this ſubject is delineated, with great force of colouring, by a writer of the twelfth century, when the ſeverity of the game-laws was ſomewhat abated. 'In our time,' ſays the author, 'hunting and hawking are eſteemed the moſt honourable employments, and moſt excellent virtues, by our nobility; and they think it the height of worldly felicity to ſpend the whole of their time in theſe diverſions; accordingly they prepare for them with more ſolicitude, expenſe, and parade, than they do for war; and purſue the wild beaſts with greater fury than they do the enemies of their country. By conſtantly following this way of life, they loſe much of their humanity, and become as ſavage, nearly, as the very brutes they hunt.' He then proceeds in this manner: 'Huſbandmen, with their harmleſs herds and flocks, are driven from their well-cultivated fields, their meadows, and their paſtures, that wild beaſts may range in them without interruption.' And adds, addreſſing himſelf to his unfortunate countrymen, 'If one of theſe great and mercileſs hunters ſhall paſs by your habitation, bring forth haſtily all the refreſhment you have in your houſe, or that you can readily buy, or borrow from your neighbours, that you may not be involved in ruin, or even accuſed of treaſon.' If this picture of Norman tyranny be correct, it exhibits a melancholy view of the ſufferings to which the lower claſſes of the people were expoſed; in ſhort, it appears that theſe haughty Nimrods conſidered the murder of a man as a crime of leſs magnitude than the killing of a ſingle beaſt appointed for the chaſe.

"King John was particularly attached to the ſports of the field; and his partiality for fine horſes, hounds, and hawks, is evident, from his frequently receiving ſuch animals, by way of payment, inſtead of money, for the renewal of grants, fines, and forfeitures, belonging to the crown.

"In the reign of Edward II. this favourite amuſement was reduced to a perfect ſcience, and regular rules eſtabliſhed for its practice; theſe rules were afterwards extended by the maſter of the game belonging to King Henry V. and drawn up for the uſe of his ſon, Henry Prince of Wales. Both theſe tracts are preſerved, and we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak a little fuller concerning them in the courſe of this chapter.

"Edward III. took ſo much delight in hunting, that even at the time he was engaged in war with France, and reſident in that country, he had with him in his army ſixty couple of ſtag-hounds, and as many hare-hounds, and every day he amuſed himſelf with hunting or hawking.

"It alſo appears that many of the great lords in the Engliſh army had their hounds and their hawks, as well as the king; to this may be added from the ſame author, that is Froiſſart, who was himſelf a witneſs to the fact, that Gaſton Earl of Foix, a foreign nobleman contemporary with King Edward, kept upwards of ſix hundred dogs in his caſtle for the purpoſe of hunting.

"James I. preferred this amuſement to hawking or ſhooting *. One time when he was on a hunting party near Bury St. Edmunds, he ſaw an opulent townſman, who had joined the chaſe, 'very brave in his apparel, and ſo glittering and radiant, that he eclipſed all the court.' The King was deſirous of knowing the name of this gay gentleman, and being informed by one of his followers, that it was *Lamme*, he facetiouſly replied, '*Lamb*, call you him? I know not what kind of *lamb* he is, but I am ſure he has got a good *fleece* upon his back.' Thus it ſeems that even the puns of royalty are worthy of record.

"It would be an endleſs, as well as a needleſs taſk, to quote all the paſſages that occur in the poetical and proſe writings of the laſt three centuries, to prove that this favourite paſtime had loſt nothing of its reliſh in the modern times; on the contrary, it ſeems to have been more generally practiſed. Sir Thomas More, who wrote in the reign of Henry VIII. deſcribing the ſtate of manhood, makes a young gallant to ſay,

* "It is ſaid of this monarch that he divided his time betwixt his ſtandiſh, his bottle, and his hunting; the laſt had his fair weather, the two former his dull and cloudy. Wellwood's Memoirs, p. 35."

'Man-

'Man-hod I am, therefore I me delyght
'To hunt and hawke, to nouriſhe up and fede
'The greyhounde to the courſe, the hawke to th' flight,
'And to beſtryde a good and luſty ſtede.'

"Theſe purſuits are ſaid by latter writers to have been deſtructive to the fortunes of many inconſiderate young heirs, who, deſirous of emulating the ſtate of their ſuperiors, have kept their horſes, hounds, and hawks, and flouriſhed away for a ſhort time, in a ſtyle that their income was inadequate to ſupport. Others again, not having it in their power to proceed ſo far, contented themſelves more prudently with joining the parties that were hunting, and partook with them the pleaſure of following the game." *P.* 4.

HUNTING FOLLOWED BY THE CLERGY.

"THE biſhops and abbots of the middle ages hunted with great ſtate, having a large train of retainers and ſervants; and ſome of them are recorded for their ſkill in this faſhionable purſuit. Walter Biſhop of Rocheſter, who lived in the thirteenth century, was an excellent hunter, and ſo fond of the ſport, that at the age of fourſcore he made hunting his ſole employment, to the total neglect of the duties of his office. In the ſucceeding century an abbot of Leiceſter ſurpaſſed all the ſportſmen of the time in the art of hare-hunting; and even when theſe dignitaries were travelling from place to place, upon affairs of buſineſs, they uſually had both hounds and hawks in their train. Fitzſtephen aſſures us, that Thomas Becket, being ſent as ambaſſador from Henry II. to the court of France, aſſumed the ſtate of a ſecular potentate; and took with him dogs and hawks of various ſorts, ſuch as were uſed by kings and princes.

"The clergy of rank, at all times, had the privilege of hunting in their own parks and encloſures; and therefore, that they might not be prevented from following this favourite paſtime, they took care to have ſuch receptacles for game belonging to their priories. At the time of the Reformation, the ſee of Norwich only, was in the poſſeſſion of no leſs than thirteen parks, well ſtocked with deer, and other animals for the chaſe.

"The ladies often accompanied the gentlemen in hunting parties; upon theſe occaſions it was uſual to draw the game into a ſmall compaſs by means of encloſures, and temporary ſtands were made for them to be ſpectators of the ſport, though in many inſtances they joined in it, and ſhot at the animals as they paſſed by them with arrows. Agreeable to theſe manners, which cuſtom reconciled to the fair ſex, moſt of the heroines of romance are ſaid to be fond of the ſports of the field. In an old poem entitled the 'Squyer of lowe Degree,' the King of Hungary promiſes his daughter that in the morning ſhe ſhall go with him on a hunting party, arrayed moſt gorgeouſly, and riding in a chariot covered with red velvet, drawn by

'Jennettes of Spayne that ben ſo white,
'Trapped to the ground with velvet bright.'

In the field, ſays he, the game ſhall be encloſed with nets, and you placed at a ſtand ſo conveniently that the harts and the hinds ſhall come cloſe to you.

'Ye ſhall be ſet at ſuch a tryſt,
'That hert and hynde ſhall come to your fyſt.'

He then commends the muſic of the bugle-horn.

'To here the bugles there yblow
'With theyr bugles in that place,
'And ſeven ſcore raches at his rechaſe.'

He alſo aſſures her that ſhe ſhould have

'A leſe of herhounds with her to ſtrake.'

"The harehound, or greyhound, was conſidered as a very valuable preſent in former times, and eſpecially among the ladies, with whom it appears to have been a peculiar favourite; and therefore in another metrical romance, probably more ancient than the former, called 'Sir Eglamore,' a princeſs tells the knight that if he was inclined to hunt, ſhe would, as an eſpecial mark of her favour, give him an excellent greyhound, ſo ſwift that no deer could eſcape from his purſuit.

'Syr yf you be on huntynge founde,
'I ſhall you gyve a good greyhounde

'That is dunne as a doo:
'For as I am trewe gentylwoman,
'There was never deer that he at ran,
'That myght yſcape him fro.'

"It is evident, however, that the ladies had hunting parties by themſelves, and we find them upon the ſecond plate in the open fields winding the horn, rouſing the game, and purſuing it without any other aſſiſtance: this delineation, which is by no means ſingular, is taken from a manuſcript written and illuminated early in the fourteenth century. We may alſo obſerve, upon theſe occaſions, that the female Nimrods diſpenſed with the method of riding beſt ſuited to the modeſty of the ſex, and ſat aſtride upon the ſaddle like the men; but this indecorous cuſtom, I truſt, was never general, nor of long continuance, even with the heroines who were moſt delighted with theſe maſculine exerciſes. An author of the ſeventeenth century ſpeaks of another faſhion adopted by the fair huntreſſes of the town of Bury in Suffolk. 'The Bury ladies,' ſays he, 'that uſed hawking and hunting, were 'once in a great vaine of wearing 'breeches,' which it ſeems gave riſe to many ſevere and ludicrous ſarcaſms. The only argument in favour of this habit, was decency in caſe of an accident. But it was obſerved that ſuch accidents ought to be prevented, in a manner more conſiſtent with the delicacy of the ſex, that is, by refraining from thoſe dangerous recreations.

"Queen Elizabeth was extremely fond of the chaſe, and very frequently indulged herſelf in following of the hounds. 'Her Majeſty,' ſays a courtier, writing to Sir Robert Sidney, 'is 'well, and excellently diſpoſed to hunt-'ing, for every ſecond day ſhe is on 'horſeback, and continues the ſport 'long'*." *P.* 9.

(To be continued.)

"* Rowland Whyte to Sir Robert Sidney, dated September 12, A. D. 1600. It is to be remembered at this time her Majeſty had juſt entered the ſeventy-ſeventh year of her age. She was then at her palace at Oatlands: and frequently, when ſhe was not diſpoſed to hunt herſelf, ſhe was entertained with the ſight of the paſtime; as at Cowdrey, in Suſſex, the ſeat of Lord Montecute, A.D. 1591, one day after dinner her Grace ſaw from a turret 'ſixteen 'bucks all having fayre lawe, pulled downe with greyhounds in a launde or 'lawn.' Nichols's Progreſſes, vol. ii."

LXXIII. *Stoddart's Remarks on local Scenery and Manners in Scotland.*— (Concluded from p. 392.)

INVERCAULD—FIR PLANTATIONS—ANECDOTE.

"FEW proprietors have done more, or with more judgment, toward the improvement of their eſtates, both in appearance and in product, than Mr. Farquharſon. Of the ancient royal foreſt of Mar he keeps a great proportion in its natural ſtate, as does the Earl of Fife; and on both properties the deer are cheriſhed with great care. There are many natural woods, but the extent of plantation is ſtill greater; Mr. Farquharſon himſelf, in the courſe of a long poſſeſſion, having planted no leſs than ſixteen millions of fir, and two millions of larch. The latter is newly introduced into the practice of Scotch plantation, and anſwers for every purpoſe, except fuel, much better than the fir. Firs, however, appear tolerably congenial to this ſoil, and there ſtill remain ſome very ancient ones, above 100 feet in ſtraight height. They were much more numerous; but having been injudiciouſly thinned, the wind forced its way into the plantation, and in one night laid moſt of theſe veterans low. Much has been ſaid in diſpraiſe of the Scotch fir. I think the natural beauty of the individual tree has been greatly undervalued; but ſurely when planted on ſo broad a ſcale, their effect is peculiarly adapted to augment the grandeur and majeſty of theſe vaſt hollows. At Invercauld, as in Glenmore, the mountains ſeem to be divided by a dark ſea of firs, whoſe uniformity of hue and appearance affords inexpreſſible ſolemnity to the ſcene, and carries back the mind to thoſe primeval ages, when the axe had not yet invaded the boundleſs regions of the foreſt.

"But

"But the moſt remarkable of Mr. Farquharſon's improvements are the roads which he has carried, in a variety of directions, through his eſtate, for purpoſes both of utility and of pleaſure. They are in all conſiderably more than twenty miles; they are excellently conſtructed, and their level ſo well kept, that you reach, by a regular progreſs, the very tops of the mountains ere you are well aware of having aſcended. Before any of the roads, public or private, were formed, Invercauld was much more completely ſeparated from ſocial intercourſe than at preſent. Among many inſtances of this, perhaps more humorous than accurate, I heard the following:—Some time previous to the year forty-five, a number of Invercauld's tenants were obſerved by a neighbouring proprietor marching in a long proceſſion, and apparently heavily laden. Upon inveſtigation, it was found that they had been to Aberdeen, and on their return, had each brought a large piece of coal as a preſent to the laird. Of the local attachment of the very loweſt claſſes, Mr. Farquharſon himſelf related to me the following inſtance. He had recommended a young herdſman to a gentleman in the ſouth of Scotland, who gave him very good wages; but walking out a ſhort time afterward, he was ſurpriſed to ſee Donald returned, and ſauntering idly about the fields. He immediately inquired the cauſe, and Donald anſwered, that 'he did not 'like the ſouth country, it was ſae 'cauld he could not find a tree or a 'hill to keep him warm.' The fondneſs of a Highlandman for whiſky is proverbial; but perhaps it was never more forcibly expreſſed than by a man of this neighbourhood, who ſaid 'he 'was aye wae, when the taſte was out 'of his mouth'." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 166.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

"THE country of Athol, in general, is not unproductive of materials for antiquarian reſearch. On and near the banks of the Tilt are the remains of ſeveral cairns, fortreſſes, and other monuments of 'the olden time.' The Athol men were always remarkable for their military ardour; nor is that character yet obliterated. Many of them are good performers on the great Highland bagpipe, an inſtrument whoſe hiſtory leads me to ſome general obſervations on Scottiſh muſic, which may form no unpardonable digreſſion.—The *harp* was formerly in general uſe among the peaſantry. It is ſuppoſed by Ritſon to have been chiefly confined to the Highlands; though James I. is mentioned as a maſterly performer on it, and it is enumerated among the Lowland inſtruments by Silveſter Giraldus. The *ſtock-and-horn* is a pipe fixed into a horn. It ſeems improperly confounded by Ritſon with the corn-pipe, which is nothing more than a blade of green corn, framed by ſhepherd boys into a pipe, as deſcribed by Chaucer, Shakſpeare, &c. The *trump*, or Jew's harp, is of great antiquity in Scotland. Lochaber is celebrated for it, as is the iſle of St. Kilda: at the former of thoſe places I myſelf heard a young man perform, with great dexterity, on two at once, not without ſome muſical effect. This inſtrument is mentioned in Wedderburn's *Complaint*; if it be not rather that, which in old Engliſh is called by the ſame name, and of which the trumpet is only a diminutive. The *violin* is now deſervedly becoming popular; and as played by the Gows, it muſt be owned to give all the ſpirit of the Scotch dancing tunes. But the inſtrument generally conſidered as peculiar to Scotland, and in favour of which there is a ſtrong national partiality on the part of that people, is the *bagpipe*. There are two kinds (beſides the Iriſh pipes); the Highland, which is played by the mouth, and the Lowland, with which the bellows are uſed. The latter kind is alſo ſuppoſed to be of Iriſh origin: the former is exceedingly ancient, not only in Scotland, but all over Europe. To this day, it is uſed by the Calabrian ſhepherds. It appears on Greek and Roman bas-reliefs, and is ſeen among the curious Saxon ſculptures, which ornament Adderbury church in Oxfordſhire. It is aſſerted, I know not on what authority, to have been brought into Scotland by the Danes, but is not improbably as old as the Roman times. In the 'Briefe Deſcription,' 1633, it is ſaid of the inhabitants of the Hebrides, that 'in place of a drum, they 'uſe a bagpip;' but this does not appear either to have been confined to the iſlanders, or to have been dedicated ſolely to war. It is mentioned in the early poem of *Peblis to the Play*, about

1430. This was probably the Highland pipe; nor was the other introduced at all into Scotland before the seventeenth century, and then probably from England. In a MS. poem of that time, a ſhepherd is deſcribed 'with a 'pair of fine bagpipes upon a green 'hill;' and at a later period, the pride which the pipers took in that inſtrument, decorating it with ribands, marching backward and forward in great ſtate, and ſeeming inſpired by the ſounds which they produced, was well deſcribed in the Elegy on Habbie Simpſon:

'Who on his pipe bore bonny flags;
'He made his cheeks as red as crimſon,
'And bobbit when he blew the bags.'

"The effect which the bagpipes produce on the Scottiſh military, is no leſs ſtriking than that of the celebrated Ranz des Vaches on the Swiſs. It is to be accounted for chiefly from the aſſociated recollection of their native ſoil; but the nature of the ſounds themſelves is in no ſmall degree conducive to enthuſiaſm. In muſic, no diſtinction is ſo marked to an uncultivated ear, as that of tone: and the powerful tones of the bagpipe, together with its ſudden and rough tranſitions, render it peculiarly conſonant with the turbulent feelings of warfare. I own that I am friendly to thoſe diſtinctive marks of national character. I cannot but regret that ſo few of the Highland gentry now retain that ancient appendage of their ſtate, the piper; and that this muſic is no longer uſed, as formerly, to alleviate the toil, and cheer the intervals of ruſtic labour. For the ſame reaſon (rather than on grounds of muſical taſte), I am pleaſed with the inſtitution of the annual prize for players on the Highland pipes. This cuſtom was firſt eſtabliſhed among the dealers in cattle, who came to the *Tryſt*, or meeting, at Falkirk; nor was the idea of thoſe gentlemen injudicious, who adviſed them to tranſfer their conteſt to the race-week at Edinburgh, where it is now held in the theatre. I do not, however, think this by any means ſufficient. A temporary ſtimulus will never keep alive a national feeling: and the real friends of ancient Scottiſh melody ſhould endeavour to revive its practice in thoſe parts of the country where it is gradually falling into diſuſe." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 178.

EDINBURGH—MANNERS—HUGMENAY, A PECULIAR CUSTOM.

"PERSONAL appearance is affected by the differences of occupation, dreſs, food, air, cleanlineſs, &c. In the higher ranks little difference is diſcernible between the natives of Scotland and thoſe of England; but in the lower, the line is ſomewhat more ſtrongly marked. I have already ſpoken of the women: the chief peculiarity of the men is in ſometimes wearing the Scotch bonnet; for the other parts of Highland veſture are almoſt unknown here. Both ſexes occaſionally preſent picturеſque and uncommon forms, the women carrying water-ſpouts, or large bundles of linen, the men with long baſkets at their backs. I have alſo remarked a few water-carriers, loaded with ſmall caſks, whoſe figures appear very ſingular to an Engliſh eye in the preſent day; though, as appears from Ben Jonſon's *Every Man in his Humour*, they were formerly not unuſual in London.

"In the great points of food and air, Edinburgh appears as fortunate as a large city can be. I have heard, indeed, from a medical man, that the ſharp winds are often fatal to very young children; but thoſe who ſurvive are rendered remarkably healthy, and the whole city is preſerved from epidemic diſorders. The general ſupply of food may be inferred from the remarkable circumſtance, that in 1781, there came into the Firth of Forth, fourteen ſail of the line, above fifty Weſt Indiamen, and 500 Baltic traders: theſe veſſels remained here ſeveral weeks, were regularly furniſhed with the beſt proviſions, and yet their conſumption did not cauſe the leaſt riſe, even in the price of vegetables. The fiſh-market is ſo well ſupplied, that a turbot, which would fetch thirty ſhillings in London, has been known to be ſold here for eighteen-pence. The chief food of the poor is herrings, oatmeal, and potatoes: wheaten bread, however, is very much uſed. The hotels and higher eating-houſes are dear; but there are in the Old Town many reſpectable places, where the charge of a dinner is very moderate. Cleanlineſs is a matter of much importance to the general health and accommodation of the city. In this reſpect there has been of late a very favourable change; but ſome-

thing

thing ſtill remains to be done toward the improvement of the general modes of living. One circumſtance, which operates very materially againſt it, is the diviſion of houſes into different *flats* or ſtories, each occupied by a ſeparate family: the ſtairs, and other common parts of the building are ſubject to much filthineſs, and the want of neatneſs in theſe gives to the whole a neglected and diſguſting air.

"Peculiar cuſtoms gradually die away, as a nation advances in civilization and refinement; but it is not unpleaſant to trace the records of former occurrences in ſome of theſe remaining evidences. Of this kind is the *Hogmenay*, a ſort of Saturnalian feſtival, celebrating the concluſion of the old, and commencement of the new year. The meaning of the word is difficult of explanation. It is probably a corruption of ſome phraſe, ſimilar in ſound, among the ſuperſtitions of the Romiſh church, ſuch as ἁγια μηνη, *hoc mane*, *hoc manet*, &c. After midnight, when the year is fully ended, many perſons (chiefly of the lower orders) run through the ſtreets with good-humoured feſtivity, ſeldom doing any other miſchief than ſtopping thoſe they meet, kiſſing the women, and offering each other *hot-pint*, a beverage compoſed of ale and whiſkey. To refuſe the cup, or to neglect wiſhing any one a happy new year, is regarded as an affront. Some few families, who retain the Jacobite ideas, regale on this night with poſſet, in memory of the birth of the Pretender.

"From what has been already ſaid, it may eaſily be inferred, that much diverſity is diſplayed at Edinburgh in the general ſyſtem of manners, which reſults from ſo many complicated cauſes. Over all is ſpread that gravity which characterizes Scotland, when compared with England, and which is particularly viſible in every thing reſpecting religious habits and opinions. The mixed effect of the law and of the univerſity conduces much to the prevalence of literature. Commerce adds her influence: and the great reſort of independent families from the country increaſes the contraſt. The traces of ancient events are not wholly obliterated. Some circumſtances mark the former dignity of a royal city: and the connexion with France is obſervable in a few minutiæ of cookery, dreſs, the names of places, the uſe of peculiar words, and (as ſome pretend to diſcover) even in the accent. The introduction of Engliſh manners, however, is moſt ſtrongly marked. Where nations, ſo intimately connected, cement their union by gradual aſſimilation, the conſequences muſt be highly advantageous on both ſides; but there are ſome perſons who carry their affectation of every thing Engliſh to a ridiculous exceſs. Theſe are ſtill leſs pardonable than thoſe who moſt obſtinately adhere to the obſolete cuſtoms of their anceſtors. The former, by their unſucceſsful attempts, acquire only the awkwardneſs of a foreign air: the latter exhibit ſtrong traces of genuine character and native virtue." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 212.

ANECDOTE OF THE OLD LADY OF CLACKMANNAN.

"TWO miles from Alloa, is Clackmannan, a miſerable village, which, however, aſſumes the dignity of a county town. It is ſeated on a hill, whoſe ſummit is crowned by the tower of Clackmannan, once the ſeat of the chief of the Bruces. This venerable pile, which is going faſt to decay, forms, from its ſituation, a pictureſque object, and commands a view no leſs admirable. From the top of the caſtle, to which I climbed with difficulty, the proſpect appears moſt extenſive; but it forms a more pleaſing picture from an adjoining row of trees, on the declivity called King's Seat Hill. Here, a ſhort time ago, lived the old Lady of Clackmannan, no leſs remarkable for her wit and good humour, than for her economy and her Jacobitiſm. On a very ſlender income, ſhe maintained much of the ſtate, and all the reſpectability of her anceſtors. She preſerved the ſword of King Robert Bruce, with which ſhe aſſumed the right of conferring knighthood; but when aſked, whether ſhe was of that monarch's family, ſhe anſwered with much dignity, 'King Robert was of my family'." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 234.

SELKIRK—THE BATTLE OF FLODDEN.

"A NEAT bridge acroſs the Ettrick leads to Selkirk. This town, ſeated on a height, and fortified with three gates, was conſidered as a place of great

great ſtrength. Its inhabitants diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their valour; and the manufacture of ſhoes having, from time immemorial, been very conſiderable, the 'Souters of Selkirk' have obtained no unmerited celebrity. While I was here, I was enabled, by the favour of my friend Mr. Scott, who is ſheriff-depute of this county, to inveſtigate with ſome accuracy, the traditional accounts of the battle of Flodden. The general report is, that the town-clerk led a large body of ſhoemakers to that battle, moſt of whom were cut off; but he himſelf eſcaping with difficulty, was created a knight banneret, and that dignity perpetuated on his office. For all this there is doubtleſs ſome foundation. The men of Selkirk diſtinguiſhed themſelves on that occaſion. The town ſtill holds a large portion of land, on account of their ſervices. A charter, which I examined, and which was granted by James V. in 1538, confirms ſome previous charters; 'becauſe,' among other reaſons, 'the burgh of Selkirk, and 'inhabitants thereoff, continuallie, 'ſince the feild of Floudoun, where 'his Majeſtie was extraordinarly aſſiſted 'by them, has been oppreſſed, herrit, 'and outridden be the Ingliſh theives 'and traittors.' The weavers' company ſtill poſſeſs the fragment of a banner taken in the battle. The town-clerk of that period (Sir Andrew Bryden) was knighted, as appears from ſeveral charters. His deſcendants ſtill live here, and till lately poſſeſſed a ſword and halbert, taken on that occaſion. The official knighthood of the town-clerk, has always been a prevalent notion here; and it is not many years ſince a diſpute of precedence, on ſome public occaſion, was ſettled by the ſubmiſſion of both parties to his ſuperior rank. It may be doubted whether all the Selkirk warriors were ſhoemakers; but it is certain that their ſkill in making 'the ſingle-ſoled ſhoon,' is of conſiderable antiquity. The well-known ſong, 'Up with the Souters of 'Selkirk,' ſometimes cited as a corroboration of their claim, is probably of much later date, and of more trifling origin; referring to a match at foot-ball, or ſome other game, at which it is uſual for whole pariſhes to contend. The tale which is related of the woman, who was found after the battle of Flodden, frozen to death, ſeems to have been merely built on a figure of the Virgin Mary, in the armorial bearing of the town. The burrough conſtitution is here as prejudicial as it is in the other ſmall towns in Scotland, where it prevails; but it has, perhaps, ſerved to prolong ſome old cuſtoms, which would otherwiſe have been worn quite out of memory. Such were the ſilver arrow, an ancient prize of archery; and the piper, who uſed to play through the ſtreets (on the Lowland pipe), every morning and evening; but whoſe place has been ſupplied, of late years, by a drum and fife."—*Vol.* ii. *p.* 262.

THE OLD BORDER CUSTOMS—PRESENT MANNERS.

"THE predatory life of the old Borderers, forms an intereſting ſubject of contemplation. From the border hiſtories of Ridpath and others, the events of this continual warfare may be collected; but the concomitant feelings of men in ſuch a ſtate of ſociety, are to be ſought in local traditions, poetical remains, and works drawn from ſimilar ſources. Much illuſtration of border cuſtoms may be found in the rude literary attempt of an unlettered muſe, entitled, 'A true Hiſ-'tory of ſeveral honourable Families 'of the honourable Name of Scot,' by Captain W. Scott, who informs us, that he was ſeventy-three years old in 1686, the date of his publication. The whole compoſition, which conſiſts of two parts, Watt's Bellanden, and Satchel's Paſt'ral, is without order or arrangement, and in a barbarous metre; but the authorities cited are often curious, and ſome of them no longer acceſſible. Here we find, that the very term *Freebooter* was not conſidered as a reproach by the Borderers, who during the open wars of the two countries, combined, with their perſonal views of plunder, ſomething like a national ſpirit of patriotiſm. At other times they became dangerous to both parties, though generally profeſſing hoſtility only to the inhabitants of the oppoſite territory. Finally, when the two governments agreed to meaſures of mutual advantage, for the ſuppreſſion of the border depredations, an irregular ſyſtem of conventional juſtice aroſe, which itſelf was not unfrequently the ſource of freſh diſpute and bloodſhed. The old ballads pourtray

theſe various ſtates, with many forcible touches of humour and pathos; and their effect is enhanced by incidents deſcriptive of perſonal character, or of popular ſuperſtition. Among them may be particularly noticed Dick o' the Cow, Jock o' the Side, Hobie Noble, the Battle of the Redſwaire, Johnie Armſtrong, &c.

"It was long before the ancient border cuſtoms could be wholly overcome; but they may now be ſaid to be like 'a tale that is told;' nay, the very tales of a tale, the ballads, the popular traditions, the memory of events attached to names and places, even the dialect itſelf is gradually wearing out. Still the peculiarity of ſituation muſt neceſſarily ſtamp a peculiar character on the inhabitants. The whole country is divided into different dales, named from the waters flowing through them. This is ſo univerſally the caſe, that 'the water' is here provincially uſed for 'the neighbourhood;' and a traveller aſking for ſalt-fiſh, or pickled herring, may, perhaps, be ſurpriſed at receiving for anſwer, that 'there is 'none in the water.' All the Borderers are capital horſemen; and to this day frequent fairs, and other public meetings, chiefly on horſeback. At ſuch aſſemblages, which are uſually crowded, there are not often boxing-matches, cudgel-playing, &c. as in England; but in their ſtead leaping, fair wreſtling, and other conteſts merely amicable. The profeſſional pipers, formerly very common, are now rare; but young men, for their own amuſement, play much on the Lowland bagpipe, fiddle, &c. Dancing alſo is a favourite diverſion; and there are ſometimes ſubſcription dances for the benefit of the poorer families. Superſtitious notions have greatly decayed of late; yet there is ſtill ſome belief in witches and ſpirits,

'Black, white, and grey, with all their trumpery.'

"The Sabbath is obſerved with great ſtrictneſs. A man will not ſhave himſelf on that day: and a parent has been known to expreſs ſcruples at gathering a cabbage for his ſick child. At church, all ranks appear in neat, but not lively dreſſes, generally wearing a black and white plaid, of a ſmall ſimple pattern. The *latewake*, or ſitting up to watch the dead, prevails here, ſometimes with weeping, ſinging, and other loud lamentations: it is, however, very dangerous, in caſes of contagion, and ſhould be as much as poſſible diſcountenanced. I cannot omit one ſingular, but obſolete cuſtom, formerly prevalent here, called *handfaſting*. There was a certain holm, where couples met and joined hands: they then lived together a year, after which, repairing once more to the ſame ſpot, they either united for life, or ſhook hands, and ſeparated.

"Among the local curioſities in this neighbourhood, we may reckon the traces of the old market-town of Staple Gordon, now deſtroyed; as well as thoſe of many other places, which prove the country to have been much more populous than at preſent, ſuch as Stanger's Wa's, &c. In the hills are frequent monuments of the Cameronians, and other ſectaries, who were killed in the religious diſſenſions of former times. At a place, called the Shaw Rigg, a large ſtone is ſtanding upright, in memory, as is ſaid, of a Pictiſh king; and a place in the river is called King Pool, on account of his being drowned there. After all that has been written on the Picts, their origin, and even the language they ſpoke, is very doubtful. The popular belief reſpecting theſe *Pechts* (for ſo they are called), is, that they were dwarfiſh, but wonderfully ſtrong men, poſſeſſing ſomething like ſupernatural power; and the authors of many ancient works, which we know from hiſtory to have been Roman, Daniſh, &c. That this nation, if they were ever eſtabliſhed in Eſkdale, ſpoke the Gaelic language, is probable from many names of places, either exiſting or recollected. The Eſk itſelf is ſo called, either from *eſk*, an eel; or from *uiſge*, water: and in ſome inſtances a Scoti-Saxon word is added to an original Gaelic term, as in Dou-glen-Cleugh, the two firſt ſyllables ſignifying a dark vale, in Gaelic, and the laſt, a hollow, in Lowland Scotch." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 268.

ANCRUM—THOMAS THE RHYMER.

"IN returning we paſſed Ancrum Houſe, which ſtands on a commanding eminence, ſurrounded by majeſtic woods, and looks down on the junction of the Tiviot with the winding Ale. Beyond it is Ancrum moor, the ſcene of the bloody battle of 1545, in which the

the Scottiſh army completely routed the Engliſh invaders. On reaching the banks of the Tweed, we once more paid our reſpects to the Earl of Buchan; and then proceeded by Drygrange to the Leader. Lauderdale, which takes its name from this river, is in this lower part prettily varied with plantations; but as we advanced, it became gradually more bare and uninteresting. The old houſe of Cowdenknows, now in part modernized, is a pictureſque object, at the foot of the hill celebrated for its 'bonny broom.' In a little plain, a mile or two further, is the village of Earlſtoun, with the tower of Thomas the Rhymer. This extraordinary character, who lived in the thirteenth century, obtained an influence over the minds of his countrymen, by uttering, in rude rhyme, ſentences which were looked upon as prophetical. Many of his prophecies were preſerved traditionally, and many ſpurious ones have ſince been publiſhed under his name. The common people believe, that he was a magician, and that he ſtill exiſts, practiſing his ſupernatural arts, in ſome unknown retirement. The town of Lauder is ſmall and poor. Near it is Lauder Caſtle, no bad ſpecimen of the heavy turreted old reſidences of the nobility. Beyond this, the country becomes more dreary, as we aſcend the Soutra Hill; from whence deſcending upon the plains of Lothian, the proſpects gradually improve, until we reach Dalkeith, between which and Edinburgh, the ſcenery has been already deſcribed."—*Vol.* ii. *p.* 285.

LXXIV. *Hinckley's Tranſlation of Link's Travels in Portugal*, &c.

(Concluded from p. 364.)

ON THE LITERATURE OF PORTUGAL.

"IN old Portugueze books a proteſtation follows the title, in which the author declares he has not intentionally ſaid any thing contrary to the Catholic church, and ſome poets have thought it neceſſary to declare they did not believe in the heathen gods. A verſe, pretended to be written by the great Camoens, is often quoted, in which he avers this; but the poem itſelf that contains it, is, like many others, falſely attributed to that writer. Such declarations however have now ceaſed, and it is unjuſt to reproach the Portugueze with theſe abſurdities. It ſhould be remembered, that, in Italy, Jacquier and Le Seur, the worthy editors of Newton's Principia, were obliged, ſo late as the year 1739, to declare they did not believe with Sir Iſaac Newton, that the earth moves round the ſun. Men have ſo often laughed at the expenſe of the Portugueze, that it is but fair to remind them of the follies of other nations.

"The Inquiſition was never very powerful in Portugal. During the laſt reign it was quite inſignificant; being confined to diſorderly monks. The temper of the Queen certainly increaſed their power, and rendered them particularly formidable to an author. An auto da fe, or corporal puniſhment, it is true, are no longer practiſed; but baniſhment is the more readily inflicted, being apparently conſidered as a triſle, and therefore inflicted when it is doubtful whether the accuſed is guilty or innocent.

"Only one political journal is publiſhed in Portugal, called the Gazeta de Liſboa, and all foreign newſpapers are prohibited. Hence political news arrive ſomewhat tardily, and ſometimes very late; but then their authenticity may be relied on, except when the dubious phraſe *dizem* (they ſay) is added. Nor is any diſtinction made in regard to delay between favourable news and the contrary; for the intelligence of the battle of Aboukir was equally late with the taking of Malta. It was alſo the faſhion to be very impartial and diſcreet; but whether it was ſo always, or prudence at this time rendered it neceſſary on account of the connexion of Portugal with Spain, I will not determine.

"A court calendar is annually publiſhed at Liſbon, which is by no means bad; but, in March 1799, I could not procure that of the current year. Beſides this there is the Calendario dos Santos, and ſome ſmaller. And Joſe Maria Dantes Permira, publiſhed by order of the Academy, Efemerides nauticas, which are copied from the Engliſh ephemeris.

"In this country are no literary journals, reviews, &c. new works being only briefly announced in the Gazeta de Liſboa, and printed bills of them poſted up as in London and Paris. At

At the univerſity of Coimbra, and the numerous literary inſtitutions at Liſbon, no occaſional publications appear. It is very cuſtomary, however, for a young man, who wiſhes to obtain a place that requires ſcientific knowledge, or to purſue his ſtudies at the expenſe of the government, to write ſome ſhort treatiſe or diſſertation. Thus a wretched ſhort ſketch of anatomy was publiſhed, by a ſurgeon who wanted to be appointed lecturer in anatomy, in a new inſtitution; and one Conſtanço, who had ſtudied phyſic at Edinburgh, and afterwards at Paris, at the expenſe of the government, wrote a ſhort treatiſe on the culture of ſoda. Inſtead of numerous eſtabliſhments and regulations, the government ſhould take care that more occaſional works of this kind ſhould be publiſhed, in order to accuſtom the nation by degrees to reading of books of ſcience and information.

"In a country where ſo little attention is paid to literature, journals might not at firſt ſucceed. In Liſbon, however, is publiſhed a weekly paper, called o Almocreve de Petas, which is very much read, and contains amuſing anecdotes, incidents, poems, &c. Almocreve in Portugueze, like arreiro in Spaniſh, ſignifies a carrier or muledriver, who conveys goods from place to place, and peta is a bagatelle; the title therefore ſignifies the poſt of bagatelles. The incidents are generally flat, the anecdotes ill-choſen, and no better told; though it cannot be denied, that among a great number, ſome few are very good. They are ſeldom without ſome perſonal alluſion; and I perceive the author even ventures to be pleaſant on the monaſtery here and there, and their trifling irregularities. The tales are nearly in the following manner: 'A boy 'was ſent by his maſter to the convent 'of Chelas (a convent ſo called near 'Liſbon). The nuns gave him a baſket 'of ſweetmeats, together with an un-'ſealed letter, ſaying, "The preſent 'is for your criado" (a word ſignify-'ing both a ſervant and a ſuitor). The 'boy being unfortunately able to read, 'thought the ſweetmeats were for him-'ſelf, and devoured them. His maſter 'flew in a paſſion,' &c. Such are in general moſt of the tales, which are rarely enriched with any happy ſtroke of ſatire. The poetry excels the proſe, and ſometimes is not bad.

"The taſte for poetry is not yet extinct in this country. Portugal juſtly boaſts of having produced the greateſt poets of the peninſula, and is without all doubt ſuperior to Spain. For what is Ercilla, what are all the epic poets of Spain, compared to Camoens, who may rival the firſt poets of Italy? Nor does Camoens ſtand alone, though he ſo far eclipſes the reſt, that theſe are ſeldom named in foreign countries. The Ulyſſipo, by De Souſa Macedo, may ſtill be conſidered as equal to Ercilla's Araucana. But this is not the place to deſcribe the Portugueze poets, whom our literary men have too long neglected. Even now, half the works publiſhed conſiſt of books of moral and religious inſtruction, and poems. Young people are very much addicted to poetry; and the fair ſex love both poetry and poets. One, two, or three verſes are ſometimes, by way of amuſement, thrown out in company, to which an extempore compoſition is to be made, concluding with thoſe lines. The concluding verſes firſt produced are called *mote*, and the remainder *gloza*. Such motes and glozas are found in the collection of Camoens' poems. In the new they ſometimes occupy one half of all the ſonnets. Even perſons of condition are fond of poetry, and it will perhaps give my compatriots pleaſure to learn, that the Dowager Counteſs of Oeynhauſen, daughter of the Marquis of Alorno, and a native of Portugal, has very happily tranſlated ſeveral cantos of Wieland's Oberon into Portugueze. It is only to be lamented that ſhe cannot yet be prevailed on to make them public.

"Epic, and in general all great poems, continually become more rare, and plays are ſcarcely ever original, moſt of them being imitations and tranſlations from the French, and eſpecially from the Italian. The Engliſh are leſs common and worſe executed. Neither are ſatires frequent. Except a few ſatirical ſonnets, I know of no great poem of this claſs. Modern literature has however produced a comico-heroic poem, entitled, Gaticanea, ou crueliſſima guerra entre os caēs e os gatos: Poema eſcrito por Joaō Jorge de Carvalho. Liſb. 1794. 8vo. This poem was much approved, and has many comic paſſages, but, as a whole, is too flat; nor are the points ſufficiently delicate and ſtriking. The moſt

common ſpecies of poetry are ſonnets, odes, ſongs, and paſtorals. The ſonnet, however, as in Spain, is the kind of poetry chiefly in favour; moſt occaſional poems and all extempories being of that claſs. The firſt artleſs expreſſions of paſſion, every ebullition of the heart, which leaves no time for coolly deliberating on regular plans, the Portugueze throws into this form; and a conſiderable collection of excellent ſonnets might indubitably be formed, as well from the new as from the old Portugueze poets.

"Bucolic poetry has ever been a favourite with this nation. Excellent examples of it may be ſeen in Camoens's collection; and with him are claſſed ſix other writers of eclogues, who, though they do not entirely equal him, have produced ſome excellent ſpecimens. Indeed I cannot but think that great maſter has led his country into a taſte for this kind of poetry. Nothing is read but ſuch amorous complaints as reſemble thoſe of Camoens; and the great uniformity, the conſtant repetition of the ſame or ſimilar thoughts, render the readers inſenſible to many a beautiful deſcription of later poets. That ſimplicity, which gives ſuch charms to this ſpecies of poetry, is here always wanting.

"Among the odes and ſongs, eſpecially the ſoft tender ſonnets, are ſome excellent pieces. Portugueze literature is alſo rich in blank-verſe poems, and attempts are frequently made to imitate the metre of the ancients. In every collection, Alcaic and Sapphic odes are rarely wanting. The tranſlations of the ancients, of which there is no want, are always in blank iambic verſe, owing to the reſtraint of tranſlating into rhyme. The metrical art, however, of the Portugueze poets is not very far advanced, nor have they at all attempted hexameters. They mutilate the metre of the ancients, as did formerly our German poets, who imagined our language would not admit of a cloſe imitation. Hence in their Sapphic odes they change the dactyl in the third cæſura into a trochee, and in the Alcaic make the fourth ſtrophe ſimilar to the third, and compoſe it entirely of iambics.—The following is an example of the laſt-mentioned metre:

'Mas tu, ditoſo, placido eſpirito,
'Entre os riſonhos coros angelicos,
'N' um turbilhaõ de luzes,
'Sobes aos aſtros nitidos.'

"Thoſe who would ſcan Portugueze verſe muſt recollect, that, like the Spaniſh and Italian, a final vowel is cut off when the next word begins with a vowel or an h. Thus aos, properly a os, forms but one ſyllable in verſe.

"Another poet thinks to ſucceed with mere iambics. He ſays,

'Ja ſe transformaõ em montanhas rigidas,
'Do vaſto pelago as campinas cerulas,
'In Neptuno ſanhoſo
'Mil bocas abre por tragar a terra.'

"It alſo appears that odes are called Alcaic if the ſtrophes have nearly the proper length; to the long or ſhort ſyllables no very ſtrict attention is paid; the authors being ſatisfied if they do not too much violate the pronunciation of the language." *P.* 476.

"There is no ſcarcity of Portugueze tranſlations, almoſt all the French works of merit in the belles lettres, where religion will permit, being tranſlated, and ſome not ill executed. Bocage, for inſtance, has tranſlated Gil Blas very well. Adelaide and Theodore, the panegyrics of Thomas, and many others, will certainly contribute to the improvement of Portugueze writing. Spaniſh works are rarely tranſlated, the two languages being too nearly alike; perhaps alſo the irreconcilable national hatred may have ſome influence, as it is utterly impoſſible for a Portugueze to beſtow praiſe on any thing Spaniſh. From the Italian they have nothing but plays, nor do they often tranſlate Engliſh works, except a few dramas, a few books of travels (as for inſtance Murphy's), and medical writings. I know of no books tranſlated immediately from the German. Through the medium of the French they have in Portugueze, as in almoſt all modern languages, two of our poems, one of the beſt and one of the worſt. The reader will anticipate that I allude to Schonaich's Hermann, and Geſſner's Death of Abel.

"Novels are ſtill very poor, the Portugueze being in this reſpect far inferior to the Spaniards. Of tranſlations they have only the old and bad French novels, and a few Engliſh, which are alſo by no means the beſt. There is a collection of novels, under the title of Lances da Ventura, Acaſos de deſgraça, e Heroiſmos

e Heroiſmos da virtude; Novellas offercidas a naçaõ Portugueza para ſeu divertimento, 5 tom. 1794. The title is ſufficient to ſhow in what ſtyle it is written, and with what ideas the collection has been made. The Hiſtoria de Carlos Magno, ou dos doze pares de França, is a favourite novel both with the higher and lower claſſes, and new editions of it conſtantly appear. Burleſque bombaſt appears to great advantage in this language, certainly as much and more than in Spaniſh, and the agreeable nonſenſe is peruſed with pleaſure. The portraits of the twelve peers of France are always to be ſeen among the pictures ſold about the ſtreets for children, together with the formoſiſſima Floripes, the giant Ferabras, the Duque de Borgonha, Rinaldo, and the reſt of the knights errant.

"The prints and pictures that are ſold about the ſtreets, remind me of the caricatures. What is the object of theſe? In London the miniſtry and oppoſition; at Paris gaming, faſhions, and faſhionable amuſements; and at Liſbon aſſaſſination: all which objects they are contrived to render laughable. I have one before me, where a man comes to another, with a ſtiletto in his hand, and demands the money due to him; upon which the latter is going to anſwer with the ſtiletto, and a third coming up, ſays, Agora accomodamſe (Ah! now you are reconciled). Certainly a nation muſt be much depraved when aſſaſſinations become an object of mirth and ſatire.

"From this ſhort digreſſion I return to Portuguese literature. Even literary hiſtory itſelf has been much neglected ſince the celebrated work of Barboſa Machado; and the late Summario da Bibliotheca Luſitana is but a meagre extract from that work. In the Memorias da Litteratura Portugueza, in 7 vols. publiſhed by the academy, little or nothing is ſaid of literary hiſtory; and a hiſtory of bucolic poetry, contained in theſe treatiſes, afterwards reprinted in the larger Memorias of the academy, is alſo extremely poor and meagre.

"The Memorias da Litteratura Portugueza abound in papers on Portugueze hiſtory, ſome of them compoſed with great induſtry and accuracy.—Many ancient documents are there printed, and many elucidate the old and new conſtitutions of the country. They are therefore indiſpenſably neceſſary to the hiſtorian *. Except this, the new works on the hiſtory of Portugal are inconſiderable, nor is there one that contains an animated deſcription.

"Philology is in a melancholy ſtate. In Spain, from time to time, appear magnificent editions of the claſſics; but in Portugal, only inſignificant faulty impreſſions for ſchool-boys. The proſe tranſlations made with the ſame view deſerve no notice; the poetical verſions are in part better, and here and there are paſſages extremely well tranſlated, which it was the more eaſy to attain, becauſe the Portugueze is cloſer to the Latin than any other language. Friar Joaõ de Souſa is a good Orientaliſt. His Veſtigios da lingoa Arabica em Portugal, and his Documentos Arabicos, are, in the judgment of the learned and judicious counſellor Tychſen, very good works.

"The philoſophy of the Portugueze was for a long time the mere obſcure cant of the ſchools; but Pombal baniſhed it from the learned inſtitutions, nor do even the profeſſorſhips of logic and metaphyſics remain at Coimbra. Since that time I ſcarcely know of a ſingle publication in which any object of philoſophy, properly ſo called, is treated." *P.* 487.

"Mathematics, like all other abſtruſe ſciences, that require cloſe and continued application to firſt principles, are at a very low ebb. Stockler, the author of an introduction to the Theory of Fluxions, is a good mathematician, though in that work he ſays nothing that is new to our German profeſſors. In the Memorias da Academia de Liſboa are ſome good mathematical papers, though the academy, in propoſing mathematical prize queſtions too eaſily anſwered, ſomewhat expoſed themſelves to a charge of ignorance. Steph. Cabral is a good practical geometrician; but aſtronomy is totally neglected, nor have any obſervations been publiſhed, or perhaps made, ſince thoſe in the Memorias da Academia; and the Efemerides nauticas are copied. Their obſervatories are walls deſtitute

* "To this muſt be added the Collecça de livros ineditos de hiſtoria Portugueza, &c. 3 vols. fol. likewiſe publiſhed by the academy."

of inſtruments. All the geographical publications ſince the great and celebrated work of De Lima are but meagre extracts from that book; and it is a diſgrace that there is no map of Portugal except that of Lopez, in which are great errors as to places moſt commonly known. This evil however will be corrected: for the Prince Regent has ſent out ſome geographers to make a journey through Portugal, for the improvement of the maps. Theſe gentlemen have begun to take obſervations on both ſides of the Tagus, of Serra de Eſtrella, and Serra de Foia. The Prince has alſo ſolemnly opened a geographical academy, the benefits of whoſe labours are ſtill expected."—— *P.* 493.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE SPANISH AND PORTUGUEZE LANGUAGES.

"THE Portugueze is one of thoſe languages that ſpring from the Latin, to which moſt of its words belong, though it aſſumed a totally different and northern character, like the Spaniſh, Italian, French, and even the modern Greek. Moſt of the words are but little different from the Latin, but the ſyntax, the auxiliary verbs, *to have* and *to be* *, the uſe of the article, &c. are northern. The whole language very nearly approximates to the Spaniſh, but has a very different pronunciation, and many words peculiar to itſelf.

"It is very difficult to compare two languages in regard to harmony, as this depends much on being accuſtomed to them; for we naturally conſider that as beautiful, to which we have been habituated from early youth; while ſtrange ſounds are frequently unpleaſant. Yet all nations agree in conſidering too many or too crowded conſonants as a defect, and to gutturals moſt nations are particularly averſe. Simple vowels have alſo on the whole a clearer and more pleaſing ſound than diphthongs; but on the other hand too many vowels and the want of diphthongs give too much uniformity, which is equally unpleaſing. Thus the language of Otaheite would appear ridiculous to moſt nations, and even the Italian has the ſame monotonous defect; the continual terminations in a, e, i, and o, being tireſome even in recitative. A language may alſo appear affected by too great an abundance of vowels or too ſoft a pronunciation of the conſonants, as for inſtance, the Swediſh, in which k is pronounced like tj (ty).

"The Spaniſh poſſeſſes a high degree of harmony, having more ſonorous terminations, and a greater variety of tones than the Italian. It has however few diphthongs, and leſs variety than the French; but its ſonorous terminations give it a great preference to the latter, the terminations of which are mute, and frequently cacophonious. It may be lamented that j and x are gutturals †, unleſs the pronunciation of Eſtremadura ‡, where they are ſounded nearly like h, were general.

"I will here add a few remarks on the Spaniſh pronunciation, which I have vainly ſought in grammars. The d between two vowels, as at the end of a word, is not ſounded at all; for though this rule has been limited to participles in ado and ido, it is almoſt general. Mr. Fiſher, in his Travels through Spain, has remarked it of the words Prado and Guadalquivir; but it alſo applies to Badajoz Merida, and others §. The pronunciation of ch is

* "The author probably means the uſing them as ſigns of tenſes, thoſe verbs and their inflexions being almoſt entirely Latin. T."

† "The author has forgotten that g before e and i is alſo an aſpirated guttural: but provincial pronunciations and diſfigurations are no real objections to the beauty and harmony of a language. The ſtrong and numerous gutturals of the German, Iriſh, Welſh, &c. are a real deformity, eſpecially when they terminate a word, as they frequently do in thoſe languages, thereby rendering them wholly unadapted to muſic; but the ſofter and rather gutturals of the Spaniſh, where they ſcarcely ever terminate a word, are rather an ornamental variety."

‡ "Almoſt throughout Spain the gutturals are aſpirated in good ſociety but little ſtronger than h; and at moſt with one ſoft vibration of the throat. T."

§ "The author ſurely means that the d is pronounced in theſe words, ſuch being the general practice, though in Prado it is oftener mute in familiar converſation. T."

hard

hard like tſch * in German; the moſt refined Spaniards pronounce it nearly like zi in German, in a manner difficult to imitate. The z is almoſt always liſped, but in a much more refined manner than the Engliſh th †.

"The Spaniſh language may be accuſed of a ſpecies of affectation. The t is often coupled with i when it precedes an e, and an e in the middle of a word is often preceded by an i, as tierra, tiniebras, tiene. To the u an e is frequently ſubjoined ‡, as in Duero, neuſtro, puente: alſo the converſion of the Latin pl into ll and the pronunciation of the z may be included under this head. But when the ear is accuſtomed to it, all affectation diminiſhes.

"With this affectation the Portugueze cannot be reproached, for the i is omitted every where, even where it appears neceſſary; ue is reſtored to o, and the z is not liſped. It is alſo free from gutturals, both j and x being pronounced like the French j, and the ch like the ſame letters in French. It alſo poſſeſſes a greater variety by means of various diphthongs. Thus ai is pronounced as in German, ei as it is pronounced by the Livonians, and aõ final as aung; on the other hand, it has naſal ſounds like the French, viz. aõ, em, om, where the m is ſounded like ng, which cannot be conſidered as pleaſing. But it is a great defect to want thoſe grand and full-toned terminations, in which the Spaniſh abounds; for the laſt ſyllables in Portugueze ſound mute, and as it were ſwallowed; and even when they end in a and o theſe vowels are pronounced ſo ſhort, that a mere mute e is heard. To this may be added the ugly cuſtom of pronouncing the s at the end both of words and of ſyllables as a weak ſch (ſh): thus mais is pronounced maiſch, and Liſboa almoſt Liſchboe. This pronunciation however is not ſo common in the provinces and among the lower claſſes as in the metropolis and among the higher orders; and ſeems to be originally a ſpecies of affectation. I was told this affectation is very recent, having been unknown twenty years ago, and that it originated from the Engliſh. As I received this account from a man of much information, I am convinced I may rely on its accuracy.

"On the whole, the Portugueze, eſpecially as it is now ſpoken, is not ſo ſonorous as the Spaniſh. It is indeed without gutturals, but, on the other hand, abounds in naſal ſounds, mute terminations, and too much ſibillation." *P.* 497.

"For eaſe in converſation the Portugueze is preferable to the Spaniſh. It is ſhorter; the pronunciation requires leſs exertion, is far removed from all affectation, and reſembles a ſibillating whiſper. To theſe advantages may be added a greater facility in addreſſing one another in converſation. The Spaniards expreſs the word *you* by uſted (pronounced ooſtay) which is a contradiction of vueſtra merced, and to omit this word is an extreme affront, ſimilar to uſing du (thou) in German as a mark of contempt. Perſons of rank are addreſſed with uſſia (a contraction for vueſtra ſenoria ‖). The Portugueze has no ſuch contractions; the words voſſa mercé, voſſa ſenhoria, voſſa excellencia ¶, being always ſpoken at length, though pronounced with great rapidity; but then it is not polite often to repeat them, the third perſon being uſed without further addition, and theſe phraſes only at the beginning of a converſation, or in ſome particular

* "Or as in the Engliſh word church. The pronunciation, like the German zi, the tranſlator does not remember to have heard in Spain. T."

† "In the capital, and where the language is the pureſt, the z is pronounced like the Engliſh th, beginning with the tongue between the teeth, as is the c before e and i, or when thus written (ç) before other vowels. The d is alſo pronounced beginning with the tongue ſomewhat between the teeth. This is difficult to imitate, and induces a habit of liſping other languages. T."

‡ "Or rather the Latin o is changed into ue, particularly in the commencement of words. T."

‖ "And uſſencia, which is a contraction for vueſtra excellencia. T."

¶ "In addreſſing a Portugueze who is not noble, the phraſe voſſa mercé is uſed; to a noble without a title § voſſa ſenhoria; to counts, marquiſſes, &c. voſſa excellencia. More courteſy is however ſhown to the ladies; every one who is noble, though untitled, being addreſſed by voſſa excellencia."

§ "Like the German *vons*."

caſes.

caſes. This renders converſation very pleaſant, whereas the conſtant repetition of *uſted* in Spaniſh encumbers it with needleſs redundancy; the Portugueze is alſo eſpecially formed for chit-chat, for much may be ſpoken without ſaying any thing. Thus the connectives or expletives pois and pois entaõ (well, well then), are continually uſed, though merely to gain time; and when any one tells a ſtory, the words eſta bom, eſta feito (it is well, it is done), denote that it is concluded. Perſons both of high and low birth conſtantly uſe theſe and other expletives, frequently very mal-apropos. Thus on inquiring of a woman after we had travelled ſome way into Algarve, whether we had yet entered that province, ſhe anſwered, 'Pois entaõ, Algarve, eſta 'feito, eſta aqui' (well then, Algarve, it is done, it is here). It muſt be allowed, however, that this kind of converſation, which is always intermixed with many forms and ceremonies, may in ſerious affairs become very fatiguing." *P.* 502.

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EXTRACT FROM THE PREFACE.

"OF the poems which have been before publiſhed, I have chiefly to repeat what I have already ſaid. They are the produce of that leiſure which, though coming unſought for to the lover of literature, tends equally to multiply proofs of the natural bias of his mind. Part of them are only to be attributed to the occaſions which apparently called them forth; but the generality are owing alſo, more or leſs, to a deſire I had of exemplifying ſome points of criticiſm, and of poſſeſſing a ſort of memorial of thoſe judgments, which the purſuits I was engaged in had from time to time led me to form. As theſe opinions, therefore, bear rather a cloſe relation to the poems collectively conſidered, I conceive, that to refer to ſome of the former in treating of the latter, will not only be thought not foreign to the purpoſe, but that, in affording new matter for reflection, it will ſenſibly apologize to the reader, for calling his attention twice to the ſame compoſitions.

"Before I ſpecify any one in particular, I have only to obſerve concerning them all, that a finiſhed and correct ſtyle has been attempted, and perhaps in ſome reſpects ſucceſsfully; as well as that the example of certain innovations in the ſtructure of the verſe, and in the form of the expreſſion (though I cannot ſay that they have yet prevailed generally), has been diligently guarded againſt. Inſtances of theſe

theſe are, firſt, where an affected or improper ſtreſs is laid upon the third ſyllable in the verſe; as in the following inſtance:

'The glad beam brightens——'

I do not mean to ſay, that our Iambic does not allow a degree of ſtreſs to be laid upon the third ſyllable, which often improves the effect. We find in every page verſes like,

'Of man's firſt diſobedience——'

And,

'In theſe deep ſolitudes——'

And Pope likewiſe cautiouſly, and where the ſenſe ſupports him, introduces verſes compoſed in the manner even of the firſt of theſe three examples: as,

'The green reed trembles, and the bulruſh nods.'

"Another mode of poetical expreſſion, and which may be accounted innovation when frequently and commonly uſed, is where the verb precedes the nominative caſe. The beſt poets, who have indeed employed this conſtruction, eſpecially where the freedom of blank verſe gave it greater propriety, have done ſo but ſparingly. We may bear poſſibly,

'Reſounds the living ſurface of the ground—'

but it ſeems uſed in ſuch inſtances as the *ne plus ultrà* of poetical licenſe. There are ſome, I know, who approve with me of Cicero's opinion, that the only ſtyle to be cultivated, is that which is the moſt proper to communicate and enforce our ſentiments; conſequently who will ſee no originality in a departure, upon general principles, from the verſification and phraſeology of Pope and Dryden.

"Among the *Odes* there is one which formed a chorus in the firſt edition of the Battle of Eddington. I thought it did not ſufficiently adhere to the rule of Horace, forbidding

'Quod non propoſito conducat, et hæreat apte.'

'—— Odes between the acts that ſeem
'*Unapt*, or foreign to the general theme.' COLMAN.

I likewiſe thought the correſpondence of the rhymes might not be ſufficiently perceptible. Yet I recollect a wiſh I at the ſame time made, that the rage for novelty would ſpend itſelf upon rhymes, inſtead of altering the ſimplicity of language. Except the ode now republiſhed, every thing that I could at all wiſh recommended to attention in the firſt, will be found in the ſecond edition of the Battle of Eddington.

"The *Sonnet*, though of modern invention, has engaged the attention of Boileau, and other critics. It has been, and is ſtill in different countries, often employed to celebrate trifling occurrences, which form proper ſubjects for occaſional verſes, but do not admit of much of the ſpirit of poetry; but I muſt confeſs I am moſt ſtruck with the opinions of thoſe who conſider it as a ſpecies of elegy. It ſeems to me, full as much as elegy, equal to a diſplay of the pomp of numbers: and I have often admired the graceful dignity of its march, with its attendant rhymes. It ſeems to have been well employed, as it has lately been, in deſcribing particular places; eſpecially when ſome intereſting event of paſt times has occurred in a beautiful ſpot: for this is a proper ſubject for elegy. The ſonnet too, by its brevity, is fitted for the traveller, who is always on the point of viſiting ſome new place, and receiving new impreſſions that might efface the former ones. It is calculated to expreſs a ſingle and general elegiac ſentiment, before other thoughts connected with it have been ſuggeſted by the ſubject; and as there is, of courſe, the greater unity where a compoſition does not conſiſt of tranſitions, but forms of itſelf one ſentiment, the cloſe relation of its parts by means of rhyme correſponds with this unity, and diſtinguiſhes this ſort of poem. Boileau thinks repeated rhyme ſo neceſſary to the ſonnet, that he makes that its definition, though he gives no reaſon for its neceſſity.

"I have ſaid elſewhere, that it may be a queſtion, whether the ſonnet might not exceed the bounds of elegy, and extend to every thing poetical that may be conceived in a ſingle thought; forming thus a contraſt in character with epigram, which might then confine itſelf to point and wit. Suitably to this idea, we have ſome ſonnets which reſemble the Greek epigram. The reader and writer will better underſtand each other, when the proper ſeparation and diſtribution of ſtyles ſhall,

ſhall, by any means, have been completed. But though it is allowable to ſpeculate moderately, alteration, perhaps, ought here to be avoided.

" It has been obſerved, that thoſe moral writers are highly ſerviceable, who, by means of ſhort and ſtriking precepts, keep up that lively ſenſe of duty to which the mind is too little prone. The *Epigram*, though of little dignity as a compoſition or a work of fancy, is particularly calculated to be a vehicle of theſe; and, however liable to abuſe, may be much relied on by the moraliſt. It reſembles farce, of which it has been ſaid, 'that its profeſſed end, if we allow it to have any 'reaſonable one, is to inſtruct.' Thoſe, therefore, who declaim enthuſiaſtically againſt point and inferior wit, made uſe of as they are by the ancients in compoſitions which are their proper vehicles, as if they were out of place, have not, probably, ſuch poetical powers as their high tone and convenient argument would inſinuate. Ariſtotle ſpeaks of a perception of the relations of things as a proof of genius; but the notion which thoſe perſons entertain, would induce us to think it was rather a proof of dulneſs.

" The work to be noticed after the Epigrams, is that which, if it has ſuggeſted new critical rules, may be ſaid to have extended Alfred's influence, as a legiſlator, even to the drama. I have, in another part of theſe volumes, unfolded its nature and object; and ſhall here, therefore, content myſelf with obſerving, that I had formed a dramatic ſcheme, with much thought, and with very peculiar views. Such unavoidable impediments to its execution as many authors experience, induced me at length to lay it wholly aſide; and perceiving (now that enthuſiaſm has abated, and circumſtances altered) the degree of trouble that muſt attend its execution, I am very far from being likely to reſume it. But though I never ſhall be willing, that what I may write ſhould be exhibited on any Engliſh theatre, my opinions of the drama will be leſs clear than I ſhould wiſh, unleſs I compoſe one or two pieces, to be judged of in the cloſet, which may remove the objections that aroſe from my meaning being miſapprehended, by giving examples of a character of writing that I contented myſelf with deſcribing. This therefore, reſorting, not to ſubjects which I once fixed upon, but to ſome that furniſh ſtill more uſeful morals, I intend to do at my leiſure; although I finally relinquiſh the drama as a principal purſuit, when I firſt propoſed to myſelf an advantage from changing the line of my writing." *P.* viii.

EXTRACTS.

ODE TO TIME; WRITTEN ON THE NEW YEAR'S DAY OF 1781.

" TIME, awful power, that rul'ſt o'er all;
By rich, by poor, unbrib'd, unpitying found;
Beneath whoſe arm triumphant heroes fall,
And golden palaces beſtrew the deſert ground:

" Too long, whene'er thou haſt renew'd
The flowery foliage, or matur'd the plain,
Have War, and Ruin fell, his hated brood,
And Death untimely, lower'd amid thy mournful train;

" While daunted at thy brow ſevere
Spring check'd her joy, the bloom of Summer fled;
Autumn ſate weeping on his ſheaves, and near
Ev'n ſullen Winter wore a thrilling gloom more dread.

" O, as thou hold'ſt thy ceaſeleſs courſe,
Grown milder now, great Power; with Peace combin'd,
Driving far off grim War and lawleſs Force,
Thy formidable locks with laſting olive bind.

" So may the fields revive, and late
Where Deſolation triumph'd, Plenty reign:
By Fear withheld, though mourning at his fate,
So may the labourer ply his cheerful toil again!

" Calm Nature's voice, and wood-notes ſweet,
The din of loud artillery ſucceed;
Commerce a world's returning treaſure greet;
Nor ſad Britannia more, begirt with trophies, bleed." *Vol.* i. *p.* 8.

EPIGRAM.

EPIGRAM.—A CONSOLATION OF AVARICE.

" SPOUSE of unfetter'd heart, though now a wife
In wedlock's bands has faſten'd thee for life:
Her features mean ſome good forebode thee ſtill,
And looks repulſive, that with terror thrill:
To flattering crowds let tempted beauty yield;
Thy rights are guarded by a Gorgon ſhield." *Vol.* i. *p.* 48.

EPIGRAM ON HIS MAJESTY'S HAPPY RECOVERY IN 1789.

" THE endanger'd veſſel, victreſs of the gale,
Reſtor'd her pilot, ſpreads again the ſail.
Fame boaſts, that long the ocean's rage was brav'd
Without his guidance, and the tackle ſav'd;
Yet leſs in wonder, as the nations knew
This bark was govern'd by a Britiſh crew." *Vol.* i. *p* 49.

SESTINA*. *(From Petrarch.)*

" TO every animal that dwells on *earth*,
Unleſs thoſe few that dread the blazing ſun,
Fate has allotted, for their toil, the day;
But, when the heavens are lighted by the ſtars,
Some hie to ſheds for ſhelter, ſome to woods,
There to enjoy their wiſh'd repoſe till *morn*.

" And I, as ſoon as I behold the *morn*
Diſperſing round the dews and ſhades o'er earth,
And calling forth the beaſts from all the woods,
Perceive no cheerful influence in the ſun;
Then, when I flaming ſee the nightly ſtars,
I only weep, and languiſh for the day.

" When duſky evening then ſucceeds the *day*,
Within this land, and makes another's morn,
Penſive I gaze at the relentleſs ſtars,
That faſhion'd me from much too feeling earth;
And curſe the day I firſt beheld the ſun,
By which I ſeem a ſavage in the woods.

" I truly think no beaſt has, in the *woods*,
Appear'd ſo terrible by night or day,
As ſhe I ſigh for, where'er ſhines the ſun;
Nor do I pauſe for evening, or for morn;
For though I am a mortal piece of earth,
The ſtrong deſire I feel is from the ſtars.

" Before I may aſcend to you, bright *ſtars*,
Or ſeek below the lover's myrtle woods,
Leaving my body, then but mouldering earth,
May I obtain her pity! Joy, one day,
Will balance years of pain, and ere the morn,
Content, announc'd me by the ſetting ſun.

" With her firſt witneſs'd by the ſetting *ſun*,
Might I remain, and only ſee the ſtars
During one night, and might it ne'er be morn;
Nor might ſhe, to that honour of the woods
Transform'd, eſcape my love, as on that day,
When Phœbus follow'd her below on earth.

" But deep in *earth*, my coffin from the *woods*
Brought, I ſhould lie, and *day* exhibit *ſtars*,
Ere ſuch a glorious *morn* diſplay the *ſun*." *Vol.* ii. *p.* 251.

* " The lines of the Seſtina terminate, in every ſtanza, in the ſame words, of *two* ſyllables; but, from the ſtructure of an Italian verſe, thoſe words ſeem properly rendered by a monoſyllable in Engliſh."

LXXVI. *An Inquiry into the ancient Greek Game, ſuppoſed to have been invented by Palamedes, antecedent to*

the Siege of Troy; with Reaſons for believing the ſame to have been known from remote Antiquity in China, and progreſſively improved into the Chineſe, Indian, Perſian, and European Cheſs. Alſo two Diſſertations: 1. On the Athenian Skirophoria: 2. On the myſtical Meaning of the Bough and Umbrella, in the Skiran Rites. (With five Plates, and ſeven Vignettes.) 4to. pp. 169. 14s. *Becket.*

CONTENTS.

CHAP. I. Of the Πεττεία—The Game of Merrils—Of Palamedes, and whether he invented the Πεττεία.—II. Of the Ludus Latrunculorum.—III. Of the Roman Alveus.—IV. Of the Πλινθίον—Of the Terms adopted in the ancient Games. V. Of the Ἱερὰ Γραμμὴ, conſidered as a Vallum or Mound, and of the Scythian Origin of the Πεττεία.—VI. Of the Πεττεία, as known amongſt the Chineſe.—VII. Origin of the King and Pieces, from the Sacred Square—King never taken at Cheſs—Checking and Check-mate.—VIII. Of the Game of elevated Pebbles, and whether there was ever an intermediate Game—IX. Of the Indian Game of Cheſs.—X. Hindu Claims to the Invention of Cheſs—Phirdauſi's Account of the ſame—Indo-Scythians—Communication between India and Europe through their Means. —*Appendix.* Of the Scythian Rites—A Diſſertation upon the Athenian Skirophoria—Second Diſſertation on the myſtic Meaning of the Bough and Umbrella, in the Skiran Rites—Northern Cuſtom of electing under Trees.

EXTRACT FROM THE PREFACE.

"THE three following Tracts, written in the hours of relaxation from buſineſs, are preſented to the public with the hope, that what was taken up for private amuſement, may prove acceptable as a matter of more general entertainment, if not of literary uſe.

"The firſt is deſigned, if poſſible, to illuſtrate a ſubject upon which much has been very learnedly advanced, but not with the moſt ſatisfactory effect; for the preciſe nature of the ancient games of ſkill remains yet undetermined: and many paſſages in the moſt favourite claſſic authors having reference to them, wait for an explanation, which they can only receive from a ſtill more lucid expoſition.

"The examination of this ſubject has, however, involved in it the diſcuſſion of another; for no ſooner was the form of the ancient *Petteia* aſcertained, than it preſented itſelf in the Chineſe game of cheſs. If a concluſion has been drawn from this diſcovery, that may be thought injurious to the credit of the Hindus, it will yet be ſeen, that whilſt the genuine records of hiſtory have been reſpected, common tradition only is combated; the vanity and error of which, it muſt at all times be conſidered a ſervice rendered to literature to expoſe. If the reader ſhall approve of the explanation here given of the *Petteia*, he will perhaps be induced to conceive, that the claim of the Hindus to originality in their invention of cheſs, has been too incautiouſly admitted.

"In attempting to elucidate the Grecian games, recourſe has been had to the authority of Julius Pollux, as far as he has treated of the *Petteia* and the *Plinthion*; but as this writer has alſo obſerved, that the uſe of the latter game was formerly permitted in the temple of Minerva Skiras, at Athens, a further inveſtigation into the meaning both of the title, and the ceremonies performed in honour of that goddeſs, was conſidered neceſſary to render the whole complete. To have entered upon ſuch a diſquiſition digreſſively, would have interrupted the regular order of the firſt inquiry; a temporary illuſtration of another kind has therefore been reſorted to, and the reader will accordingly have an early inſight into the general nature of the Skiran feſtival, from a deſign, which, with two others, has been obligingly furniſhed by Mr. Treſham. But it is hoped that the reader's curioſity may be more completely ſatisfied by the two Diſſertations annexed: in one of them will be diſplayed, the external ceremonies of a very intereſting Athenian feſtival; and in the other, will be ſubmitted ſome general conjectures, which may poſſibly bring to light whatever

whatever myſteries were concealed in the Skiran rites; and which, by explaining what were really the religious principles of the Greeks from their appropriate ſymbols, may afford ſome uſeful hints in the ſtudy of antiquities." *P.* v.

EXTRACTS.

THE GAME OF MERRILS,

" KNOWN to the Greeks by the name of Τρίδδιον, was probably more ancient than the Πετθία, and perhaps the parent of it; inaſmuch as depoſiting the pebbles alternately, muſt have been more ancient than the moving them *.

" Dr. Hyde obſerves, that the Oriental name for this central ſquare upon the board of Merrils, is *Zindân; Carcer. Anglicè*, '*the Pound*,'—'*quaſi pecorum carcer.*' And indeed it is very probable that it was originally intended to repreſent ſomething of this kind. For as the eaſtern ſhepherds amuſed themſelves by playing with the pebbles, whilſt they watched their *folds*, they might afterwards have introduced the figure of the *fold* itſelf, as an ornament to the board. This had likewiſe its uſe; the pebbles being probably firſt depoſited there, and taken from it, as occaſion required, in the courſe of the game.

" And here, I think I obſerve the origin of the *Sacred mark*; for, as I have no doubt of the Πετθία having taken its riſe from this ſimple game, the *ſheep-fold* was retained in the centre of the board of the Πετθία alſo, and ſtyled by the Greeks Σηκὸς, the *ſheep-fold*. But in proceſs of time, we find this word accepted in a very different ſenſe †. And it came firſt to ſignify the ſquare encloſure, or railing within which the images of the gods were placed; and, at laſt, the ἱερὸν, or *temple itſelf*. And thus, from want of diſcriminating between the ancient and modern ſenſe of the word Σηκὸς, the ſpace in the centre of the board was called '*the Sacred*;' and becauſe it covered the central ſtation, or point of interſection, the 'ἱερὰ γραμμὴ'." *P.* 13.

OF THE SCYTHIAN ORIGIN OF THE Πετθία.

" IT would be going into too wide a field of inquiry, were we now to examine the degree of intimacy which certainly exiſted, from earlieſt times, between the Scythians and the Greeks, by way of aſcertaining the ſource from which the paſtoral game was imparted to the latter. Nor would I here with to adduce all the various authorities, which muſt be freſh in every memory, tending to eſtabliſh the identity of the northern inhabitants of Greece with the Hyperboreans, and proving how generally Scythian manners and religious ceremonies were diffuſed over every part of Greece. It is enough to point out that the Greeks, at one time, were aſſociated with, and partook of the manners of the Scythian Nomades, to eſtabliſh the poſſibility of their having received the Πετθία from them. In accounting for the coincidence of ancient cuſtoms, we muſt look for ſome probable reaſon, which will equally apply to every party concerned in the queſtion. Now, the purpoſe of this inquiry could not be anſwered, by referring the origin of the game to any other country. It is hardly probable that Chaldæa or Egypt ſhould have ſent the Πετθία into Greece. The former was a poliſhed, as well as a powerful nation, long before the Greeks had quitted the wandering ſtate; therefore little likely to have communicated to them a paſtoral game. On the other hand, it may be juſtly doubted whether the Egyptians communicated it to the Greeks; for, notwithſtanding a *hearſay* report of Plato, concerning their god Theut being the inventor, we have no reaſon to believe they ever conſidered it as a relaxation, if they ever were acquainted with it; but rather made it ſubſervient to their favourite ſtudy of aſtronomy; and by diſpoſing the pebbles upon the Πετθευτήριον, ſo as to expreſs the relative ſituation of the planets, they formed from it the firſt idea of the orrery. But the material difficulty will be, to convey the game from Greece to the north of China, where it certainly was known. The ψῆφοι and Ping, of the Greek and

* " The ſcheme of this board, as known amongſt the ſhepherds of this country, is mentioned by our poet Shakſpeare as the Nine-men's Morrice."

† " Potter's Antiquities, vol. i. p. 176."

Chineſe games, will appear as armed natives of the ſame country, and engaged in the ſame warfare, however widely diſtant the field in which the operations of each were carried on; the former, ſeeming to confide on their own unaſſiſted exertions; the latter, acting with auxiliaries, ill adapted to the nature of their diſcipline, and ſerving rather as an incumbrance than an ornament to the game. We ſhall be at no loſs to fix upon the intermediate wandering tribes of Aſia, as the communicators of the game to all theſe countries, whoſe ſeveral confines they touched upon. Numerous as theſe tribes muſt have been, and varying from each other, both as to diſtinguiſhing names and language, in this point they agreed, that they were Nomades; and they may be therefore allowed an indiſcriminate right to the merit of the invention." *P.* 51.

OF THE FEAST OF THE UMBRELLA, OR THE BOUGH—THE MISTLETOE.

" AMONGST the many Hyperborean rites brought into Greece by the Pelaſgi, which continued even after the expulſion of that people by the Hellenes, we may rank the *Skirophoria*. Upon the ſucceſſes of the latter, no doubt but many of the ancient poſſeſſors of the country ſecured to themſelves a ſhelter in the mountainous parts of Greece, and particularly in Arcadia, where the feaſt we have mentioned was long preſerved; and betrayed its origin by the Hyperborean ceremonies employed in the celebration of it. It is ſufficient to ſay that the Σκιρία, as conducted at Alea in Arcadia, admitted the cruel cuſtom of ſcourging, which clearly indicates the quarter from whence the whole was derived. The more enlightened Athenians, however, from motives of humanity perhaps, omitted this practice in the feſtival, which they were in the habit of celebrating equally with the Arcadians, and which, no doubt, they equally received from the ſame ſource.

" A further inducement for my believing that the *Skirophoria* were of Hyperborean or Scythian origin, ariſes from the following conſiderations: that although this ceremony has been generally referred to the Σκίρον, or *Umbrella*, yet, as this word (accordingly as its termination may be varied) is applied to many different objects which muſt have been totally unconnected with this theme, we are to conclude that the word itſelf had ſome other generic meaning. Amongſt the various ſignifications of it, we find that Σκίρων implies the *north-weſt wind*; and this may poſſibly have been its original ſenſe with regard to thoſe other words. Thus, the Σκιρωνίδες πέτραι, were large rocks lying to the N.W.; and the robber Skiron, whom Theſeus ſlew, was perhaps a hardy and cruel Hyperborean. The ἀνὴρ μάντις of Pauſanias, who founded the ancient temple of Minerva at the port of the Phalerus, came from Dodona, and was therefore of Pelaſgic deſcent; to which we may add, that he poſſibly received the title of Skiros, on account of his coming from the N.W. We might continue theſe remarks, by obſerving, that the picket and advanced guard of the Lacedæmonian army was compoſed of troops called Σκιρῖται. Theſe were Arcadians, according to Heſychius; for Σκίρος was a ſettlement in Arcadia, eſtabliſhed, no doubt, by a people who came from the north-weſt; and it was in the faſtneſſes of this country that I have ſuppoſed the reſt of the Pelaſgi had taken ſhelter. But it would be tedious to multiply inſtances; I am however led to conceive that Arcadia, of all the provinces of ancient Greece, muſt be the richeſt in Pelaſgic remains; and that if a moderate attention were paid to thoſe parts, many valuable diſcoveries might preſent themſelves to the inquirer, which would amply repay his ſearch." *P.* 101.

" From the celebration of this feaſt about the ſummer ſolſtice, and from the circumſtance of the Athenian year beginning at the ſame time, we might conclude, that the Skiran rites were intended to ſolemnize the opening of the year; in which opinion we ſhould be conſiderably encouraged, were we to advert to certain rites adopted by other nations, which would be found to have the ſame alluſion with the *Skirophoria*, notwithſtanding the new year of thoſe nations began differently from the other ſolſtice, or from the equinoctial points." *P.* 104.

" The miſtletoe-bough was equally an attendant emblem upon the Hyperborean year. As it was particularly venerated on the night of the old year, I have

I have little ſcruple in conſtruing it into an emblem of *night*.

" In Holſtein, ſays the intelligent Editor of the Northern Antiquities, it is called the '*Marentaken*,' or *branch of ſpectres*. What can this imply, but that it was an emblem of *night*, which the ghoſts were ſaid to be attendant upon? '*Jam te manet* Nox, *fabulæque* Manes.' As the Roman poet combined them together, ſo the *miſſletoe*, repreſenting the *ſhades*, was properly termed '*the branch of ſpectres*.'

" When we read, in the Edda, that Balder (who was the ſame as the Sun) was killed by the miſſletoe thrown at him, this can only denote, that—

'The ſun ſet, and the ſhades of night were ſpread over him.'

" Keyſler relates a ſingular ceremony in Germany and Gaul, that on the laſt day of December, youths go about with the miſtletoe, crying, '*To the miſſletoe!*'—'*The new year is at hand!*'

" The Chriſtians of northern Europe fondly continue their reverence for this bough to the preſent moment, and they ſuſpend it in their halls on Chriſtmas Eve (which is about the winter ſolſtice), as an emblem of the night, which, for them, precedes a *new year* of Redemption.

" The Hyperboreans called *night*, '*The Mother of the Year*.' The miſtletoe was a fit emblem of it; and the Greeks, who borrowed much of their religious worſhip from them, only exchanged winter for the ſummer ſoiſtice, and in other reſpects adopted the ceremony. The prieſt of the ſun carried, for this purpoſe, a bough, which, from its ſhade, was called Σκιρὰ Σκίρα, or Σκίρον. It was, with the Greeks, an emblem of the *night*, or the *old year*, to which the *day* of the *new year* was on the point of ſucceeding; and from this alluſion of the *bough* to *night*, whenever we ſee a bough, or an umbrella, or a tree depicted upon Hetruſcan vaſes, it invariably implies the ſhades, and alludes to the *Inferi*: and it is a very curious circumſtance, that the *golden bough*, which Æneas finds *in Inferis*, is compared by Virgil to the miſtletoe, and is actually repreſented as growing upon the *oak-tree*.

'*Quale ſolet ſylvis brumali frigore* Viſcum
'*Fronde virere novâ*,'——
* * * * * * *
'*Talis erat ſpecies auri frondentis opacâ*
'Ilice.'——

ÆNEID, lib. vi. ver. 204.

" We now ſhall learn to account for the otherwiſe difficult meaning of the word Σκίρος, as applied to the N.W.; it is, even in this ſenſe, to be underſtood as σκιερὸς, or *ſhady*, for theſe rites were brought by the Hyperboreans from the N.W. which may thus be rendered, '*The Land of Shades**.' It was there that the Cimmerian Tartarus was placed, and the *Orcus* of the Greeks and Romans, which laſt ſtill remains in our *Orcades*, or *Orkney Iſlands*; as has been amply proved by Mr. Bailly, and by almoſt every other writer who has taken up the ſubject of Northern antiquities.

" The Pelaſgic inſtitution of the *Skirophoria* was therefore the proceſſion of the bough; which might poſſibly have been borne, in earlier times, on the day preceding the winter ſolſtice; but which certainly formed, in the later ages, a religious feſtival at Athens, on the day which preceded the opening of the new ſolar year. It was attended likewiſe with other ceremonies, in which the ſun was called upon by the Athenians to aſſiſt, and favour their agricultural labours." *P.* 108.

NORTHERN CUSTOM OF ELECTING UNDER TREES.

" FROM the elegant tranſlator of, and commentator upon, Mr. Mallet's work †, to whom I have been already ſo much indebted, I learn that the Northern nations conceived that their gods were ſeated, and adminiſtered juſtice from, under an *aſh-tree*; that many cuſtoms ſtill remain of courts being held, and magiſtrates and officers choſen *under trees*. An Etonian alſo

* " What ſhall we ſay of the *Umbri*, the '*gens antiquiſſima Italiæ?*' whoſe name has hitherto been derived from Ὄμβρος, or from their having been overſhadowed by the Apennines? Were they not rather Σκίρωνες, from the Land of Shades?"

† " Northern Antiquities, 2 vol. 8vo. 1770."

will

will be pleaſed with recollecting, on this occaſion, the ceremonies of his college:—the '*caſæ frondeæ pro taber-*'*naculis*,' in the window receſſes of the Lower School, and the arbours in Long Chamber, for which, if I miſtake not, a waggon-load of boughs is provided at the expenſe of the college; and this happening at the time of the *annual election* of candidates for the univerſity, ſeem referrible to this, and may be remains of the old northern cuſtom of '*electing under the bough*.' And I hope it may not be deemed too fanciful, if I ſuppoſe that Theſeus elected his magiſtrates at the *feaſt of the Bough*, at the ſummer ſolſtice, that they might enter upon their office at the firſt new moon." *P.* 118.

LXXVII. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1801. Part I. 4to. pp. 240. Appendix 26. With 15 Plates. 17*s*. *Elmſly*.

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EXTRACTS.

ON THE IRRITABILITY OF NERVES, BY EVERARD HOME, ESQ. F.R.S.

"THE nerves have been hitherto conſidered as chords that have no powers of contraction within themſelves, but only ſerving as a medium, by means of which the influence of the brain may be communicated to the muſcles, and the impreſſions made upon different parts of the body conveyed to the brain.

"The difficulties which attend every attempt to inveſtigate the real ſtate of the nerves in the living body, and the impoſſibility of acquiring any information upon this ſubject after death, may be urged in excuſe for this opinion having been ſo univerſally received, ſince it will be found, from the following experiments and obſervations, to be void of foundation.

"The only means by which any knowledge reſpecting the irritability of nerves can be procured, muſt be from the operations in ſurgery performed upon nerves, either in a healthy ſtate, or under the influence of diſeaſe; or from experiments made upon animal bodies before they are wholly deprived of life, and inſtituted for that particular purpoſe.

"My attention was directed to this ſubject by the following caſe, which explains many circumſtances reſpecting the actions of the nerves when under the influence of diſeaſe, and gave riſe to the experiments and obſervations contained in this Paper.

"A perſon

" A perſon thirty-ſix years of age, naturally eager and anxious in his diſpoſition, whoſe ſtomach was peculiarly irritable and irregular in its action, in the winter of the year 1796, while riding in the country, was thrown from his ſeat by a ſudden motion of the horſe; and, in endeavouring to ſave himſelf, fell with his whole weight upon the end of his thumb, againſt the pommel of the ſaddle.

" The part ſwelled, and became very painful. A few days after, he hurt it again, which prevented the ſwelling from ſubſiding, and it remained uneaſy and enlarged for three or four months. It afterwards got well, but the motions of the thumb were not always under the command of the will; ſo that he was ſenſible, in the years 1797 and 1798, while writing, of finding a difficulty in forming particular letters.

" On the evening of the 16th of October 1799, which was cold and damp, he was travelling in a poſt-chaiſe with two other perſons, and let down the window, to ſpeak to the driver. A cold wind blew directly into the carriage, and he endeavoured to pull up the window; but not ſeeing the glaſs riſe, he looked down, and his hand, inſtead of pulling up the window, was lying upon his knee. The thumb was bent in towards the palm of the hand; a ſpaſm came upon the muſcles of the arm, making them bend the elbow; and immediately he became inſenſible: in a quarter of an hour he perfectly recovered himſelf. Some hours after, upon bending his thumb, to ſhow what had happened to him in the carriage, there was a return of the ſame attack, which alſo rendered him inſenſible for a few minutes.

" From this time, he had no return of theſe attacks for nine weeks; at the end of which period, on the 18th of December 1799, he was waving his hand over his head, with a degree of eagerneſs, as a ſign for ſome people to make haſte and follow him; this exertion made the thumb contract towards the palm of the hand, and he fell upon the ground in a ſtate of inſenſibility. This attack went off as the others had done; he had another in the evening; and, in the courſe of the next day, two more, equally violent. As the motion of the thumb was the firſt ſymptom in all theſe attacks, the aſſiſtants were led to contrive a glove, the front of which was ſtrong enough to reſiſt the motion of the thumb, and to keep it in its place: while this was kept on, the attacks were leſs frequent. A ligature was then applied round the fore-arm; when the thumb was beginning to be agitated, this was tightened, and the ſpaſms were found to be arreſted at the ligature, and of courſe deprived of their violence.

" From this time, a tourniquet was kept conſtantly upon the fore-arm; and a perſon was always in readineſs to tighten it, the moment the ſpaſm was expected, which was always preceded by a general feel of uneaſineſs all over the body: as ſoon as the ſpaſm went off, which it did inſtantaneouſly, the tourniquet was looſened. The ſpaſms in the thumb and fore-arm returned frequently, and at irregular intervals, generally every three hours, ſometimes oftener, and once did not come on for thirty-ſix hours.

" On the third or fourth day, electricity was tried, with a view to relieve them; ſparks drawn from the thumb, produced tremors in the muſcles, which were confined to the thumb. An electric ſhock through the ball of the thumb, brought on a very ſevere ſpaſm in the arm; but neither ſparks, nor a ſhock through the other thumb, produced any ſenſible effect.

" On the 29th of December, I firſt ſaw the patient; and, after watching the ſymptoms for three days, made the following obſervations upon the complaint.

" That the beginning of the attack was ſome involuntary motion of the thumb and fore-finger; and therefore, the diſeaſe appeared to be in the branch of the nerve which ſupplies theſe two parts, called by Winſlow the median nerve.

" That the progreſs of the ſpaſms was in the direct courſe of the trunks of the median nerve, up to the head.

" That compreſſing the parts in the courſe of that nerve, when it was done before the ſpaſms had reached them, always arreſted their progreſs; but, when once the muſcles had become convulſed, or agitated, the ſame compreſſion had no effect in ſtopping the progreſs of the ſpaſms.

" The

"The mode in which the ſpaſms were propagated along the courſe of the nerves, was as follows.

"Five or ſix tremors took place in the flexors of the thumb and fore-finger; then ſimilar convulſive motions affected the muſcles of the fore-arm; ſoon after, the muſcles of the arm were thrown into the ſame kind of action; afterwards the pectoral muſcle, and ſcaleni of the neck: the muſcles of the lower jaw were probably in the ſame ſtate, although their action was not within the notice of the by-ſtanders. The head was pulled forcibly to that ſide, in quick ſucceſſive motions, and, in a ſecond or two, the whole ceaſed; the parts became tranquil, the inſenſibility went off, and the patient recovered himſelf: there was, however, a general feel of languor and diſtreſs over the whole body, before the recovery.

"From theſe obſervations, the diſeaſe appeared to be decidedly in the inferior branches of the median nerve; and the irritation was conveyed along its courſe, from its terminations in the thumb and fore-finger, to the origin in the brain.

"It was propoſed to divide the nerve, as it paſſes from under the annular ligament of the wriſt towards the thumb, to cut off the communication between the diſeaſed extremities and the trunk of the nerve, and ſo put a ſtop to the progreſs of irritation which conſtituted the diſeaſe.

"That ſuch an operation might be attended with ſucceſs, was not only rendered probable from reaſoning, but the performing it was fully juſtified by the ſucceſs which had been experienced from a ſimilar operation, in ſome caſes of the *Tic douloureux*; a diſeaſe, in many reſpects, of the ſame nature with the preſent.

"All theſe circumſtances were explained to the patient, who, from a deſire of obtaining relief, conſented to have the nerve divided. This was done on the 1ſt of January 1800, in the following manner: the nerve, as it paſſes from under the annular ligament, towards the thumb and fore-finger, was laid bare, for above an inch in length; it was then detached from its lateral connexions, and, in this expoſed ſtate, a probe-pointed biſtoury was paſſed behind it, and the nerve was raiſed upon the edge of the inſtrument, ſo as to be diſtinctly ſeen by the different medical gentlemen preſent, before it was cut through. As ſoon as it was divided, the two cut ends retracted from one another, to a conſiderable diſtance. This retraction was very unexpected, as the nerve was diſengaged from the cellular membrane, and no other part had been divided, whoſe action could make the portions of the nerve recede.

"That nerves, when divided, do retract, is well known in the practice of ſurgery; but this effect has been uſually attributed to the contraction of the neighbouring parts, as the cellular membrane and blood-veſſels, with which the nerves are connected. As none of theſe cauſes could produce the effect in the preſent inſtance, it was natural to ſuppoſe, that an independent action exiſted in the nerve itſelf, which had been ſo much increaſed by the influence of diſeaſe, as to become unuſually great; and, therefore, the retraction was more diſtinctly ſeen than in a healthy ſtate of the body.

"The moment the nerve was divided, there was a ſpaſm over the whole body, and a momentary inſenſibility. The blood-veſſels divided in the operation were not ſecured by ligature, but allowed to ſtop of themſelves, to give the wound every chance of healing by the firſt intention. The edges of the ſkin were carefully brought together, and kept in that ſtate by compreſs and bandage, to promote as much as poſſible the union.

"For eight hours after the operation, the parts were perfectly quiet, and there was no ſpaſm. The wound then began to feel hot, as if a red-hot coal had been applied to it. To relieve this ſenſation, the outer bandage was looſened, and immediately there were twitches in the nerve, which ſoon went off. The patient felt himſelf generally unwell, extremely nervous, and irritable.

"Fifteen hours after the operation, he had a violent ſpaſm, which went along the arm to the head, but did not affect the brain. In an hour, there was a ſecond attack, at which I was preſent; the pulſe was one hundred and five in a minute, the tongue white, a great deal of general irritation, nervous twitches all over the body, but in the greateſt degree in the arm and leg of that ſide. The ſtiff-fronted glove was

was now put on, to confine the thumb." *P.* 1.

"The fifth day, ſuppuration took place in the wound; the ſwelling in the hand was much abated; and the patient was able to dreſs and ſhave without ſpaſm, having only twitches in the fingers, and tremors in the fore-arm." *P.* 7.

"The ſixteenth day, the wound was entirely healed; and, as there had been no return of ſpaſms, the patient was conſidered as well.

"On the twenty-fourth day, which was a fortnight after the ſpaſms had ceaſed, at nine o'clock in the morning, he was awakened by a violent ſpaſm, which paſſed directly up to the head, and affected the brain, producing inſenſibility: this was the only time the brain had been affected ſince the operation." *P.* 8.

"The return of the ſpaſms after the wound had been healed, made it evident, that the operation of dividing the nerve had not anſwered the purpoſe which was expected from it. The failure probably aroſe from the wound not healing by the firſt intention: the conſequent inflammation rendered the cut end of the nerve uncommonly irritable; and, in this ſtate, the confinement in the hard thickened cicatrix, rendered it liable to be ſtretched by every motion of the thumb, ſo as to bring on ſpaſmodic contractions.

"From this time the patient was not under my direction; but I underſtood, that he tried the effect of large doſes of opium, which did not afford relief. He was then induced to employ electricity, which was alſo unſucceſsful; and he died in a fit, which at the time was believed to be apoplexy, about five months after the operation had been performed; but, as the body was not examined, the nature of the fit could not be aſcertained." *P.* 9.

ACCOUNT OF THE DISCOVERY OF SILVER IN HERLAND COPPER MINE. BY THE REV. MALACHY HITCHINS.

"HERLAND mine is ſituated in the pariſh of Gwinear, about ſeven miles N.E. of St. Michael's Mount, on the ſouthern coaſt of Cornwall; and two miles and a half from the mouth of the river Hayle, on the northern coaſt of the ſame county: it is contiguous to Prince George mine.

"It commences in a valley on the weſt, and paſſes through a hill, which is firſt of ſteep and then of moderate aſcent, for upwards of half a mile eaſtward; when the principal copper lodes, which follow this direction, meet with a large croſs lode, by which, and by other croſs courſes and ſlookans, which interſect them in their farther progreſs, they are repeatedly heaved, and ſo diſordered by theſe heaves, in their form and poſition, and ſo changed by them, in reſpect to their compoſition, as hardly to be recogniſed.

"The ſtrata of the diſtrict in which this takes place, conſiſt of the common metalliferous ſort of argillaceous ſlate called *Killas*.

"The copper lodes of this diſtrict are remarkable for the ſhortneſs of their continuity; for, whereas other lodes may be traced to an indefinite extent in the ſame line of direction, theſe, on the contrary, are obſerved to taper away gradually, and terminate to all appearance, at a ſhort diſtance, completely and irrecoverably.

"This mine was worked about twenty years ago, when it was ſunk to the depth of one hundred fathoms from the ſurface. It was again ſet to work about eight years ſince; has now four fire-engines and two ſteam-whims on it; and is ſunk to a depth of one hundred and fifty-five fathoms below the ſurface, or, as the miners call it, from *graſs*.

"It is in this latter period of its hiſtory that a diſcovery has been made of a conſiderable quantity of ſilver ore, in a particular part of the mine, the ſingularity of which diſcovery, in this country, has much excited the curioſity of the public.

"For, although the numerous veins of lead in Cornwall are richly impregnated with ſilver, and occaſionally yield ſmall quantities of ſilver ores, and even ſpecimens of native ſilver, yet, hitherto, no inſtance had been known of their yielding this precious metal in ſuch abundance; nor had any circumſtances, in the natural hiſtory of the mineral veins of this country, borne any analogy to thoſe which accompanied the preſent diſcovery." *P.* 159.

"The ſilver ore, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is a mixture of galena, native biſmuth, gray cobalt ore, vitreous ſilver ore, and native ſilver; which, in reſpect to their proportions, follow the order in which they

they are here enumerated, the galena being the moſt prevalent. The native ſilver, of which ſpecimens of the greateſt beauty have been reſerved for the cabinets of the curious, is found chiefly in a capillary form, in the natural cavities of the lode.

"About one hundred and eight tons of this ore have been raiſed. The miners continue to ſink near the ſame point of interſection; and ſeem confident that both lodes will ſoon become richer, becauſe ſimilar inſtances of declenſion and recovery have frequently occurred in the copper lodes of this mine, and becauſe the two lodes appear to have a reciprocal influence on each other.

"Unfortunately, however, the extent of their ſpeculation is limited by the great depth of the preſent workings; for, forty-five fathoms have been ſunk ſince the firſt diſcovery of the ſilver; and twenty, or twenty-five fathoms more, are as much as can be ſunk in this mine, with its preſent mechanical powers of drawing the water; at which level, viz. one hundred and eighty fathoms from the ſurface, it would be ſomewhat deeper than any mine in Cornwall, and about one hundred and thirty fathoms below the level of the ſea, at low water mark." *P.*163.

LXXVIII. *Struve on the Art of recovering ſuſpended Animation.* (Concluded from p. 403.)

ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY INSTITUTED.

"IN the year 1772, a humane inſtitution for the ſame benevolent purpoſe was formed at Paris, under the direction of M. Pia.

"But the moſt celebrated aſſociation in the world, for this purpoſe, is the *Royal Humane Society of London*. Dr. Cogan's tranſlations of the tranſactions of the ſociety at Amſterdam, firſt excited the attention of the Engliſh to this important ſubject; he ſoon ſketched a plan for a ſimilar inſtitution, which met with univerſal approbation, and ſpeedily obtained the ſanction of the legiſlature.

"In the year 1774, ſeveral medical gentlemen, as well as others of the firſt reſpectability, aſſociated for the purpoſe of reſuſcitating perſons drowned, ſuffocated, &c. The founders of this ſociety were Dr. Cogan and Dr. Hawes: they afterwards requeſted the patronage of his Majeſty, and the inſtitution was conſequently called the Royal Humane Society. They immediately publiſhed conciſe directions for the treatment of the drowned, or otherwiſe apparently dead by ſuffocation, &c. of which many thouſand copies were diſtributed. Theſe directions are very elegantly printed on cards, of a pocket ſize. A reward of two guineas was offered to thoſe who ſhould firſt reſcue a perſon from danger; and four guineas to him who ſhould be ſucceſsful in employing the reſtorative proceſs. The ſociety then nominated a conſiderable number of medical aſſiſtants, eſpecially ſuch as reſided near the banks of rivers and the ſea-coaſt, in order to afford the moſt ſpeedy relief to perſons drowned, ſuffocated, &c. the inſtruments neceſſary for ſaving life being depoſited in adjacent houſes. To excite emulation and ſtimulate induſtry, a gold and ſilver prize medal were granted by the ſociety as a reward.

"In 1775 and 1776, inſtitutions ſimilar to that of the Royal Humane Society, were formed in all the large towns of the kingdom, eſpecially at Norwich, Hull, Liverpool, Worceſter, Cheſter, and Kidderminſter; as well as in Scotland and Ireland. This reſpectable ſociety annually increaſed in the number of its members, who were active in their endeavours to diffuſe the knowledge of thoſe principles, ſo that the prejudices againſt the inſtitution, and the reſuſcitative proceſs, ſoon vaniſhed; for, within the ſhort period of a few years, they had demonſtrated by ſeveral hundred ſucceſsful inſtances, that their benevolent plan was by no means chimerical. Contributions, ſome of which amounted to a hundred pounds, were ſent from every part of Great Britain, and even from America; collections were made in the churches of London, by which the ſociety was enabled to extend the ſphere of its operations, and to appropriate conſiderable ſums for the purchaſe of the requiſite implements, and for beſtowing medals and rewards. In order to carry their intentions into effect, as extenſively as poſſible, ſeveral houſes were erected for the reception of bodies apparently lifeleſs; where all the neceſſary apparatus, ſuch as blankets, a portable

portable bed, copper kettles for heating water, and an electrical machine, were always kept in readineſs. Theſe ſmall buildings were erected in different parts of London, and chiefly in the vicinity of rivers and other waters, where ſuch accidents were moſt likely to happen." *P.* 7.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES RELATIVE TO THE RESUSCITATION OF PERSONS APPARENTLY DROWNED.

"RESUSCITATION is accompliſhed, by exciting ſuppreſſed vitality; or by removing the obſtacles which prevented the latent vital power from exerting its influence on the ſyſtem. Our ſucceſs frequently depends upon a proper notion of vitality and its modifications; namely, irritability and ſuſceptibility of irritation. During this proceſs we ought anxiouſly to attend to the ſymptoms of returning animation, and proceed as circumſtances may require. We accordingly promote—

"1. *The ſuſceptibility of irritation*, which is reproduced by removing the different obſtacles. Thus we take the drowned out of the water, undreſs and dry them, cleanſe their mouths from froth and filth, and place them in a proper poſition;—we cut the cord of thoſe ſuſpended, &c.

"2. *The application of a proper method.* The inanimate body ſhould be placed in a temperature, where the latent vital power may again become active, or ſuſceptible of irritation. Hence, life will often return without the application of any other ſtimulus. A gradual tranſition from apparent death to perfect life, is not to be effected by precipitately reſorting to extremes, but by gently cheriſhing the vital power. Effectual aſſiſtance can be afforded only by ſlow degrees and an inceſſant attention to the ſigns of returning animation. Nothing is, therefore, more pernicious than a ſudden tranſition to air of a different temperature. A perſon benumbed by cold, would inevitably expire, if immediately brought near a fire.

"To reſtore the ſuſceptibility of irritation, nothing more is required than to aſſiſt its gradual evolution. Hence, the good effects reſulting from reſt, and a cautious moderate proceeding, are obvious; nay, ſuch meaſures are neceſſary for reviving the ſpirits, and reſtoring the ſtrength of the ſubject.

"Generally ſpeaking, the want of ſucceſs in many attempts to effect reanimation, muſt be attributed to a haſty and officious aſſiſtance. No time is left to Nature for her own exertions. All, it is imagined, muſt be effected by a violent compulſory treatment. The operators often forget, that they are treating an organized body; and that all the ſucceſs they can expect from their applications, principally depends upon vital action, which, by violent treatment, is too often deprived of all its energy. During the whole of the proceſs, perſons apparently dead, ſhould be regarded as if dangerouſly wounded.

"It frequently happens that the firſt treatment of the apparently dead, renders the ſucceeding applications totally ineffectual. A perſon drowned, is either dragged out of the water by the legs, or dangerouſly lacerated by hooks employed on ſuch occaſions. Another, who has ſuffered by cold, is generally rubbed in a violent manner; and there have been inſtances of the jaw-bones of the unhappy ſufferer being fractured by this treatment.

"The firſt treatment, in caſes of ſuſpended animation, ſhould be directed to excite a ſuſceptibility of ſtimuli; and next, for reſtoring ſuſceptibility itſelf. The firſt part of the treatment is negative; the ſecond poſitive, inaſmuch as real means of reſuſcitation are employed, namely, thoſe of air and warmth: their temperature ought to correſpond exactly with that of the body. The perſon who has ſuffered by intenſe cold, is treated in the open air, or in a cold room; the drowned ſhould be removed to a room which is moderately warm, placed in a tepid bath, &c. For thoſe who have ſuffered by cold, the ſnow bath, or ice-cold water, conſtitutes the firſt degree of warmth.

"Before any ſuſceptibility of irritation be manifeſt, no ſtimulants ought to be adminiſtered; for they would be inefficacious, becauſe the body is not ſuſceptible of them; nay, they would injure it, by forcibly propelling the blood to the heart, and thus deſtroying its irritability. Hence the detrimental conſequences of violent friction, in the

beginning of the proceſs, muſt be evident.

"2. *Reſtoration of irritability:* this is effected by a proper application of ſtimulants.

"Stimuli can only be applied when there remains a ſuſceptibility of irritation. Symptoms of this, as well as the firſt indications of irritability, require the utmoſt attention; and as the former may often exiſt without manifeſting itſelf by perceptible ſigns, our utmoſt endeavours to excite it, will in all caſes be abſolutely neceſſary. Many a perſon apparently dead by drowning, cold, or ſuffocation, has been reſtored to life without medical aſſiſtance, only by being expoſed to a moderate warmth, and left to Nature alone. I am convinced, that in a high degree of aſphyxia, ſuch a proceeding would not be ſufficient, but in thoſe caſes reſuſcitation may, perhaps, be effected by the art of the phyſician, and a cautious application of ſtimuli.

"The manifeſt criteria of ſuſceptibility determine the degree and nature of thoſe ſtimuli, by which returning vital action muſt be ſupported. There are, however, caſes, in which, though ſuſceptibility may really exiſt, no traces of it are perceptible; if, therefore, exciting means be tried for ſome time, if the drowned be moderately warmed, and ſtill no ſigns of this ſuſceptibility, ſuch as warmth, contraction of the heart, &c. appear, yet the judicious application of ſtimulating means ſhould not be neglected.

"But, from the preceding obſervations, it ought not to be inferred, that the method of exciting ſuſceptibility ſhould always firſt be applied for a certain length of time, and ſtimulants afterwards adminiſtered, without continuing the former proceſs. Such a proceeding would be erroneous, inaſmuch as the method of exciting and ſupporting the ſuſceptibility, for inſtance, the warming of the body, ſhould be continued without intermiſſion; while at the ſame time ſtimulants muſt be adminiſtered as circumſtances may require. By this judicious application of ſtimuli, they will be of double advantage; by both exciting and promoting the ſuſceptibility of irritation.

"Advantages ſo eſſential, ſhould induce us to be particularly careful in the choice and application of ſtimulants, and not to adminiſter ſuch as are too powerful, which would indeed excite irritability in a violent degree, but at the ſame time ſuppreſs the ſuſceptibility of irritation. Thus powerful electrical ſhocks through the heart, excite violent motions of that organ; but as this ſtimulant is deſtructive of the feeble irritability remaining in the ſyſtem, the pulſations will ſoon ceaſe, nor can they again be excited. Hence, during the application of ſtimulants, great attention ought to be paid to the different degrees of irritability; and it is alſo deſerving attention, that in the beginning of the proceſs, when the ſuſceptibility of irritation is but ſlight, violent ſtimulants are pernicious, as they tend to ſuppreſs the latent ſparks of life.

"The different degrees of ſuſceptibility of irritation, are equal to the ability of bearing the application of ſtimulants. Hence, when the ſuſceptibility of irritation is feeble, gentle ſtimulants only muſt be adminiſtered. Such ſtimuli, therefore, ought to be gradually applied; and when the firſt degree of ſuſceptibility is excited by the operation of thoſe of a milder nature, the more powerful may then be adminiſtered.

"The conſtitution of the individual apparently dead is, however, a point which deſerves great conſideration; as irritable, weak, and ſtrong habits, and ſuch as are vigorous, but inſenſible of ſtimuli, require very different modes of treatment. The latter can be affected only by the ſtronger ſtimulants. Attention is alſo to be paid to the age of the ſubject, whether it be a child, a vigorous youth, a man, or a perſon advanced in years.

"As this idea of the ſuſceptibility of irritation can only be relative, it would be fruitleſs to eſtabliſh rules, ſuitable to every caſe. Theſe muſt therefore be determined by the judgment of the phyſician; a talent which neither Hippocrates nor Galen could ever impart by their writings." *P.* 54.

A CURIOUS FACT RESPECTING THE RECOVERY OF A DROWNED PERSON.

"IN Dr. Baldinger's Medical Mazazine, vol. iii. No. 3, is contained the following curious anecdote: A ſtudent of a certain univerſity being drowned, an unſucceſsful ſearch was made for the body. A man who was paſſing by, adviſed

adviſed his young friends to procure a large loaf; to ſcoop out part of the crumb, and fill the cavity with quick-ſilver; he then directed them to throw this *quick-ſilver pye*, upon the current, and averred, that it would be ſtationary at the place where the drowned was lying. They followed his advice, and actually found the body." *P.* 64.

LIGHTNING.

"A MAN who ſtood in a kitchen, near an unfiniſhed chimney, was ſtruck by lightning, and conſidered as dead. The body had no viſible marks of injury, except a few red ſtreaks on the breaſt and right arm. Two minutes after the accident happened, he was carried into the open air. The pulſe was ſtrong and irregular: the whole body, except the face, was immediately covered with a layer of earth, ſix inches thick, and cold water poured upon the face. In eight minutes, he began to move his ſhoulders and tongue; and, in twelve minutes, he was ſo far reſtored, as to be able to articulate ſome incoherent words. He was then removed from the earth-bath, put to bed, and rubbed with vinegar. A mixture of vinegar and water was likewiſe poured down his throat. An hour and a half after the accident, he had entirely recovered the uſe of his ſenſes, but complained of exceſſive thirſt, and a painful burning ſenſation in his right arm, and the fingers of both hands. The following night, he could not ſleep, on account of intenſe pain: he roſe the next morning; but, for many nights afterwards, he did not enjoy a quiet repoſe; and even after the expiration of half a year, the ſenſation of pain had not entirely forſaken him.

"In this caſe, the application of the earth-bath is the moſt remarkable remedy: it is, however, to be obſerved, that the uſe of this exciteſment of reſuſcitation, like all others, ought to be continued ſeveral hours, till ſigns of returning life appear. I know an inſtance of a phyſician, who, having accidentally heard of the earth-bath, applied it, but only for a few minutes. Though, in this caſe, reſuſcitation was not effected, yet, during the application, ſome warmth was perceptible in the ſubject.

"The ſame phenomena which are produced by violent electric ſhocks, are obſervable in perſons who have ſuffered by lightning, namely, ſhivering and heat of the extremities, anxiety, aſthmatic complaints, and extreme ſenſibility of the electric atmoſphere, on the approach of a thunder-ſtorm. A man who had received a violent ſhock from an electric battery, afterwards ſuffered by a ſimilar ſenſation, loſt his appetite and ſleep for a long time, and was ſeized with giddineſs and ſtupor. From experiments made with animals, electricity was analogically inferred to be a very powerful reſuſcitative, in caſes of accidents by lightning. Animals were apparently killed by electricity, and afterwards reſtored to life, by a ſecond ſhock through the head and heart."—*P.* 143.

LXXIX. *Comparative Statement of the Food produced from arable and graſs Land*, and the Returns ariſing from each; with Obſervations on the late Encloſures, and the probable Effects of a general Act for encloſing Commons and Waſtes, Heaths, &c.; together with other Matters. Addreſſed to John Fane, Eſq. M. P. By the Rev. LUKE HESLOP, Archdeacon of Bucks, Author of "Obſervations on the Aſſize of Bread," &c. 4to. pp. 18. 2s *Reynolds.*

EXTRACTS.

"'IN the Report of the Committee *, printed the 27th April 1797, it is ſtated—' that for nineteen years, 'ending in 1765, Great Britain gained 'by its corn at the rate of 651,000*l.* 'per annum; whereas the balance on 'the importation for twenty years, 'ending the 25th March 1797 (on an 'average of theſe years), is moderately 'ſtated at 600,000*l.* per annum, making 'a deficiency (or loſs) in the balance of 'the agricultural production of the 'country at the rate of 1,251,000*l.* per 'annum:

* "The friend to whom I have the honour of addreſſing this, favoured me with the Report; and at the ſame time mentioned that the inference drawn in favour of encloſures did not follow from the premiſes."

'annum: or in twenty years no leſs a 'ſum than 25,020,000*l.*'—Alſo, 'that 'the value paid to foreign countries for 'the laſt three years, viz. 1794, 1795, 'and 1796, was 7,446,012*l.*'—And 'by 'other calculations, the real coſt of 'grain, imported in the year 1796 *alone*, 'amounted to 4,500,000*l.*' Alſo the Committee having received accounts from 'the cuſtom-houſe, ſtating the quantity 'of grain (of every kind) imported, it 'appeared, that 148,000 acres of additional land, cultivated under theſe articles of produce, would have yielded 'the imported quantity, and conſequently—that if ſuch a breadth of 'waſte land (capable of yielding theſe 'products) were in future to be added 'to the culture of the kingdom, there 'would not be a ſimilar neceſſity for 'importation. *Nor is that all;* can 'any perſon doubt that *double the quantity wanted might be brought into cultivation if the Legiſlature would give 'ſufficient encouragement, or even permiſſion, for that purpoſe?*'—*Permiſſion* here evidently implies (and in other parts of the Report it is expreſsly ſtated) that if the *difficulties* and *great expenſes* with which enclosures have hitherto been attended, were but removed, or ſufficiently leſſened, that a quantity of land would ſoon be enclosed, and brought into cultivation, which would be ſufficient to produce a continued annual increaſe of grain equal, or even double to the paſt deficiency.—But before this concluſion is adopted, it ſhould be compared with a former part of the Report (p. 7th), where the average number of enclosure bills for ten years 'commencing anno '1726,' is ſtated as follows:

'Number of bills for ten years.

			Average.
'Ending anno	1735	38	4
	1745	39	4
	1755	61	6
	1765	312	31
	1775	471	47
	1785	469	47
	1795	371	37.'

"From hence it is evident, that in the three firſt periods, the number of enclosures, on the average of ten years, had never amounted to ſix, except in that ending in 1755; and that in the following period, ending in 1765, they increaſed to 31; and in the three ſucceeding ones were ſtill much greater. If, therefore, an increaſe of the number of enclosures naturally produces an increaſe of grain, this increaſe ſhould have commenced about 1765, when their number became five times more numerous than in any former period; and it ſhould alſo have been ſtill greater in the three following periods, in which the enclosures received ſtill further increaſe. But the Report ſtates the fact to be otherwiſe; and that in 1765, the *exportation of corn* (which on the average of the nineteen years preceding amounted to 651,000*l.*) *then ceaſed*; and *from that time importation commenced*, and continued during all the following periods, and, on the average of twenty years, ending in 1797, amounted to 600,000*l.* per annum. It cannot, therefore, be inferred, that by increaſing the number of enclosures, the quantity of grain will therefore be increaſed. Much leſs—'*that if permiſſion was given for that purpoſe*,' the increaſe would amount to twice the preſent, or late deficiency. In ſpeculative reaſoning, on a ſubject ſo complicated and extenſive, the moſt diſcerning may err: but here *two facts only are ſtated*,—an *extraordinary and rapid increaſe of enclosures*, and (from the time theſe enclosures would naturally produce their effects) *a change from exportation to importation*. The exportation alſo prior to theſe numerous enclosures had been uninterrupted *, on an average of ten years, from the earlieſt time (1697) in which regular accounts had been kept; and the importation has continued alſo uninterrupted *, on a like average of years, to the preſent day. It may, therefore, be fairly preſumed (except ſome other cauſe can be aſſigned, and none is here ſuggeſted, neither does any ſufficient † one appear), that the numerous enclosures

* "See the table, extracted from '*Accounts preſented to the Houſe of Commons* 'reſpecting corn, flour, proviſions, &c.' Ordered to be printed 18th Nov. 1800."

† "A change in the kind of bread in general uſe,—an increaſe in the population of the kingdom,—in the number of horſes,—or any other like cauſe, muſt evidently be gradual,—and (if they had commenced even at the ſame time) inadequate to produce ſuch a ſudden and great change as here repreſented, viz. from an exportation to the amount of 651,000*l.* per annum, to an importation amounting to 600,000*l.*"

produced

produced this effect; and as this is in direct oppoſition to the concluſion drawn in the Report, it may be prudent at leaſt to pauſe—and conſider,—Whether a general act of encloſure would realize the preſent expectations of the ſanguine, and produce the effect here ſtated *, viz. that 'even in years 'of ſcarcity there would be a ſufficient 'quantity of grain for the conſumption 'of the country, and in favourable 'ſeaſons there would be a conſiderable 'ſurplus—which, exported to other 'nations, would add to our commerce 'and our wealth;'—And if, upon full inveſtigation, or upon the more certain evidence of the returns which government, with great wiſdom, has required to be made, it ſhould appear, that the produce of grain has *not been increaſed* by the numerous encloſures, but *decreaſed*;—it may then be prudent to conſider,—Whether the land remaining to be encloſed is under different circumſtances as to ſituation, ſoil, &c. from that which has already been encloſed?—And here, perhaps, ſome difference may be found.—For large tracts of land may be of a quality inferior, on the average, to the lands hitherto encloſed, and leſs favourable to graſs. They may in general be ſituated at greater diſtances from cities and populous towns, where the produce ariſing from graſs, as hay, butter, &c. is particularly wanted, and which cannot be brought with advantage from diſtant places. The ſoil, alſo, of a conſiderable part, may be light, and leſs capable of producing natural graſs, and therefore muſt be cultivated in a courſe of huſbandry, including artificial graſſes, &c. But the crops of grain on ſuch lands would alſo be light, and probably not anſwer the preſent expenſes of tillage. And it muſt alſo be *remembered*, that the crops of *bread corn* would return only every fifth or ſixth year, or perhaps at a diſtance ſtill greater."—*P.* 11.

" *A Table of the Quantities of Wheat and Flour exported, or imported, beginning in* 1697 *(the firſt Year in which regular Accounts were kept in England) on an Average of ten Years (except in the three firſt Periods), extracted from a Table in the* 'Accounts preſented to the Houſe of Commons reſpecting Corn, Flour, 'Proviſions, &c. Ordered to be printed 18th November 1800.'

" N. B. Theſe periods commence one year earlier (and conſequently end one year earlier) than the periods of the encloſures in the '*Report from the Committee* '*of Waſte Lands*,' &c.; but it ſeemed more expedient that this difference ſhould remain, than the whole arrangement of the table ſhould be changed.

		WHEAT AND FLOUR.		
Years inclusive.	*Exceſs of Exports or Imports.*	*Exports.*	*Imports.*	
		Quarters.		
11 Years, ending 1707	Average	88,617	- - -	England.
8 Ditto — 1715	Ditto	130,436	- - -	
9 Ditto — 1724	Ditto	117,501	- - -	
10 Ditto — 1734	Ditto	144,072	- - -	
10 Ditto — 1744	Ditto	260,600	- - -	
10 Ditto — 1754	Ditto	500,340	- - -	England and Scotland.
10 Ditto — 1764	Ditto	238,377	- - -	
10 Ditto — 1774	Ditto	- - -	83,061	
10 Ditto — 1784	Ditto	- - -	60,575	
10 Ditto — 1794	Ditto	- - -	71,146	
5 Ditto — 1799	Ditto	- - -	234,983	

* " See p. 19 of the Report."

LXXX. *Poems.* Tranſlated from the French of Madame de la MOTHE GUION. By the late WILLIAM COWPER, Eſq. Author of "The Taſk." To which are added, ſome original Poems of Mr. Cowper, not inſerted in his Works. 18mo. pp. 132. 3s. *Wakefield*, Newport Pagnel; *Williams*, Stationers' Court, London.

CONTENTS.

TRANSLATION of the devotional Poems of Madame de la Mothe Guion—*Original Poems*—An Epiſtle to a Proteſtant Lady in France—Friendſhip—Separate Stanzas ſubjoined to Bills of Mortality for the Years 1787, 1788, 1789, 1790, 1792, 1793—Epitaph.

EXTRACTS.

HAPPY SOLITUDE—UNHAPPY MEN.

Vol. 2. *Cantique* 89.

"MY heart is eaſy, and my burden light;
I ſmile, though ſad, when thou art in my ſight:
The more my woes in ſecret I deplore,
I taſte thy goodneſs, and I love, the more.

"There, while a ſolemn ſtillneſs reigns around,
Faith, love, and hope, within my ſoul abound;
And while the world ſuppoſe me loſt in care,
The joys of angels, unperceiv'd, I ſhare.

"Thy creatures wrong thee, O thou ſov'reign Good!
Thou art not lov'd, becauſe not underſtood;
This grieves me moſt, that vain purſuits beguile
Ungrateful men, regardleſs of thy ſmile.

"Frail beauty, and falſe honour, are ador'd;
While Thee they ſcorn, and trifle with thy word;
Paſs, unconcern'd, a Saviour's ſorrows by;
And hunt their ruin, with a zeal to die."
P. 27.

EXTRACT FROM FRIENDSHIP.

"WHO ſeeks a friend, ſhould come diſpos'd
T' exhibit in full bloom diſclos'd
The graces and the beauties
That form the character he ſeeks,
For 't is an union that beſpeaks
Reciprocated duties.

"Mutual attention is implied,
And equal truth on either ſide,
And conſtantly ſupported;
'T is ſenſeleſs arrogance t' accuſe
Another of ſiniſter views,
Our own as much diſtorted.

"But will ſincerity ſuffice?
It is indeed above all price,
And muſt be made the baſis;
But ev'ry virtue of the ſoul
Muſt conſtitute the charming whole,
All ſhining in their places.

"A fretful temper will divide
The cloſeſt knot that may be tied,
By careleſs ſharp corroſion;
A temper paſſionate and fierce
May ſuddenly your joys diſperſe
At one immenſe exploſion.

"In vain the talkative unite
In hopes of permanent delight—
The ſecret juſt committed,
Forgetting its important weight,
They drop through mere deſire to prate,
And by themſelves outwitted.

"How bright ſoe'er the proſpect ſeems,
All thoughts of friendſhip are but dreams
If envy chance to creep in;
An envious man, if you ſucceed,
May prove a dang'rous foe indeed,
But not a friend worth keeping.

"As envy pines at good poſſeſs'd,
So jealouſy looks forth diſtreſs'd
On good that ſeems approaching,
And if ſucceſs his ſteps attend,
Diſcerns a rival in a friend,
And hates him for encroaching.

"Hence authors of illuſtrious name,
Unleſs belied by common fame,
Are ſadly prone to quarrel,
To deem the wit a friend diſplays
A tax upon their own juſt praiſe,
And pluck each others laurel.

"A man renown'd for rapartee
Will ſeldom ſcruple to make free
With Friendſhip's fineſt feeling,
Will thruſt a dagger at your breaſt,
And ſay he wounded you in jeſt,
By way of balm for healing.

"Whoever

"Whoever keeps an open ear
For tattlers, will be ſure to hear
The trumpet of contention;
Aſperſion is the babler's trade,
To liſten is to lend him aid,
And ruſh into diſcuſſion.

"A friendſhip that in frequent fits
Of controverſial rage emits
The ſparks of diſputation,
Like hand in hand inſurance plates,
Moſt unavoidably creates
The thought of conflagration.

"Some fickle creatures boaſt a ſoul
True as a needle to the pole;
Their humour yet ſo various,
They manifeſt their whole life through
The needle's deviation too,
Their love is ſo precarious.

"The great and ſmall but rarely meet
On terms of amity complete;
Plebeians muſt ſurrender,
And yield ſo much to nobler folk,
It is combining fire with ſmoke,
Obſcurity with ſplendour.

"Some are ſo placid and ſerene
(As Iriſh bogs are always green),
They ſleep ſecure from waking;
And are indeed a bog that bears
Your unparticipated cares
Unmov'd and without quaking.

"Courtier and patriot cannot mix
Their heterogeneous politics,
Without an effervеſcence
Like that of ſalts with lemon-juice,
Which does not yet like that produce
A friendly coaleſcence.

"Religion ſhould extinguiſh ſtrife,
And make a calm of human life;
But friends that chance to differ
On points which God has left at large,
How fiercely will they meet and charge,
No combatants are ſtiffer!

"To prove at laſt my main intent,
Needs no expenſe of argument,
No cutting and contriving—
Seeking a real friend, we ſeem
T' adopt the chemiſt's golden dream,
With ſtill leſs hope of thriving.

"Sometimes the fault is all our own,
Some blemiſh in due time made known
By treſpaſs or omiſſion;
Sometimes occaſion brings to light
Our friend's defect, long hid from ſight,
And even from ſuſpicion.

"Then judge yourſelf, and prove your man
As circumſpectly as you can;
And having made election,
Beware no negligence of yours,
Such as a friend but ill endures,
Enfeeble his affection." *P.* 106.

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